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MEDICINE.

ART. I. *Zoonomia; or the Laws of Organic Life. Vol. II.* By Erasmus Darwin, M. D. F. R. S. Author of the Botanic Garden, 4to. 784 pages. 4 pl. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. in Boards. Johnson. 1796.

In this ample and well-furnished volume, Dr. D. presents us with the practical application of the principles which he had before delivered. It consists of two parts; the former containing the nature and cure of particular diseases; the latter, the operation of medicines. The author's manner of filling up his outline is not less his own than the outline itself. His distribution of diseases might, we think, with some propriety, be termed *symptomatologie raisonnée*, an analytical symptomatology; and a reference to the attempts of most preceding systematic writers, the analogy of other sciences, and a consideration of the thing itself, concur to show, that no work can pretend to acceptance as a just body of medical doctrine, unless it deserve the character implied in this designation. The late ingenious Dr. John Brown, indeed, was at variance with the medical world in this particular: it was his unceasing cry, that symptoms were to be disregarded as fallacious. This is just such reasoning in medicine, as it would be in astronomy, to say: "I have assigned the true causes of the motions of the celestial bodies, but as to their varying phases and positions (which are the symptoms of the heavens) we need not trouble ourselves about them; the inquiry would be vain and misleading." So supercilious a defence of ignorance is doubtless much more worthy of condemnation, than the rudest *ratio symptomatum* can ever be of ridicule.

The inveterate and prevailing error of former nomenclatures and descriptions of diseases is very similar to one which has been but lately exposed in metaphysics. It fared with *fever*, *syphilis*, and a hundred other disorders, as with *virtue*, *goodness*, *necessity*. They were mistaken for real, instead of nominal essences. It was not sufficiently considered, that there exist only diseased individuals, and not diseases. From this source have flowed inextricable confusion in theory, and blind precipitation in practice. Physicians going about with a *prototype* in

their head, derived from books or from lectures, have not been able sufficiently to admire the caprice of nature, which sports alike with the identity of medical and metaphysical doctors, and makes a thing *another and the same*, with greater dexterity than the most experienced professor of *flight-of-hand*. But under whatever variation the disease concealed it's essence, the indications of cure, as annexed to the history in the system, were too often undistinguishingly pursued; or if the practitioner happened to be an eclectic, he followed such indications as he had collected from a variety of systems. The accounts drawn up by physicians, when multitudes have been similarly diseased in a short period, afford examples without number in proof of these observations, and without an analysis, to the extent which Dr. D. has here attempted, no rational idea of an epidemic or endemic complaint will ever be acquired. These reflections were suggested by the first glance of the volume before us: or, to speak more truly, by anticipation from a careful perusal of it's precursor. The author touches upon these, and collateral topics, in his preface; and we must not defraud our readers of the essential part of what he has advanced.

PREF. P. vii. ' The uses of the method here offered to the public of classing diseases according to their proximate causes are, first, more distinctly to understand their nature by comparing their essential properties. Secondly, to facilitate the knowledge of the methods of cure; since in natural classification of diseases the species of each genus, and indeed the genera of each order, a few perhaps excepted, require the same general medical treatment. And lastly, to discover the nature and the name of any disease previously unknown to the physician; which I am persuaded will be more readily and more certainly done by this natural system, than by the artificial classifications already published.

' The common names of diseases are not well adapted to any kind of classification, and least of all to this from their proximate causes. Some of their names in common language are taken from the remote cause, as worms, stone of the bladder; others from the remote effect, as diarrhoea, salivation, hydrocephalus; others from some accidental symptom of the disease, as tooth-ach, head-ach, heart-burn; in which the pain is only a concomitant circumstance of the excess or deficiency of fibrous actions, and not the cause of them. Others again are taken from the deformity occasioned in consequence of the unnatural fibrous motions, which constitute diseases, as tumours, eruptions, extenuations; all these therefore improperly give names to diseases; and some difficulty is thus occasioned to the reader in endeavouring to discover to what class such disorders belong.

' Another difficulty attending the names of diseases is, that one name frequently includes more than one disease, either existing at the same time or in succession. Thus the pain of the bowels from worms is caused by the increased action of the membrane from the stimulus of those animals; but the convulsions, which sometimes succeed these pains in children, are caused by the consequent volition, and belong to another class.

' To discover under what class any disease should be arranged, we must first investigate the proximate cause; thus the pain of the tooth-ach is not the cause of any diseased motions, but the effect; the tooth-ach, therefore, does not belong to the class of sensation. As the pain

pain is caused by increased or decreased action of the membranes of the tooth, and these actions are owing to the increase or decrease of irritation, the disease is to be placed in the class of irritation.

To discover the order it must be inquired, whether the pain be owing to increased or defective motion of the pained membrane; which is known by the concomitant heat or coldness of the part. In tooth-ach without inflammation, there is generally a coldness attends the cheek in its vicinity; as may be perceived by the hand of the patient himself compared with the opposite cheek. Hence odontalgia is found to belong to the order of decreased irritation. The genus and species must be found by inspecting the synopsis of the second order of the class of Irritation. See class I. 2. 4. 12.

This may be further elucidated by considering the natural operation of parturition; the pain is occasion by the increased action or distention of the vessels of the uterus, in consequence of the stimulus of the fetus; and is therefore caused by increased irritation; but the action of the abdominal muscles in its exclusion are caused by the pain, and belong to the class of increased sensation. See class II. 1. 1. 12. Hence the difficulty of determining, under what class of diseases parturition should be arranged, consists in there being two kinds of diseased actions comprehended under one word; which have each their different proximate cause.

In sect. xxxix. 8. 4. and in class II. 1. 1. 1. we have endeavoured to give names to four links of animal causation, which conveniently apply to the classification of diseases; thus in common nictitation, or winking with the eyes without our attention to it, the increased irritation is the proximate cause; the stimulus of the air on the dry cornea is the remote cause; the closing of the eyelid is the proximate effect; and the diffusion of tears over the eye-ball is the remote effect. In some cases two more links of causation may be introduced; one of them may be termed the pre-remote cause; as the warmth or motion of the atmosphere, which causes greater exhalation from the cornea. And the other the post-remote effect; as the renewed pellucidity of the cornea; and thus six links of causation may be expressed in words.

But if amid these remote links of animal causation any of the four powers or faculties of the sensorium be introduced, the reasoning is not just according to the method here proposed; for these powers of the sensorium are always the proximate causes of the contractions of animal fibres; and therefore in true language cannot be termed their remote causes. From this criterion it may always be determined, whether more diseases than one are comprehended under one name; a circumstance which has much impeded the investigation of the causes, and cures of diseases.

Thus the term fever, is generally given to a collection of morbid symptoms; which are indeed so many distinct diseases, that sometimes appear together, and sometimes separately; hence it has no determinate meaning, except it signifies simply a quick pulse, which continues for some hours; in which sense it is here used.

In the present work, a great variety of new denominations are of necessity employed; and so glaring is the inconsistency between strict science, and names imposed in consequence of wild analogies, that we could almost wish that the author had proceeded, like the botanists

and later chemists, with a bold hand to expunge all terms tainted with ignorance and barbarism.

The former volume notified the four grand divisions into diseases of *irritation*, *sensation*, *volition*, and *association*. The following example, together with the passage above quoted, will render the mode of subdivision sufficiently understood. p. 2.

* CLASS I.

DISEASES OF IRRITATION.

ORDO I.

Increased Irritation.

GENERA.

1. With increased actions of the sanguiferous system.
2. With increased actions of the secering system.
3. With increased actions of the absorbent system.
4. With increased actions of other cavities and membranes.
5. With increased actions of the organs of sense.

ORDO II.

Decreased Irritation.

GENERA.

1. With decreased actions of the sanguiferous system.
2. With decreased actions of the secering system.
3. With decreased actions of the absorbent system.
4. With decreased actions of other cavities and membranes.
5. With decreased actions of the organs of sense.

ORDO III.

Retrograde Irritative Motions.

GENERA.

1. Of the alimentary canal.
2. Of the absorbent system.
3. Of the sanguiferous system.*

To the first genus are assigned the following species: '1. Irritative fever. 2. Drunkenness. 3. Arterial haemorrhage. 4. Arterial haemoptoe. 5. Bleeding from the nose.' To complete our illustrations of the author's plan, we shall select four contrasted articles; two from 'order I. genus 2. *With increased actions of the secering system*,' with their correlative from 'order II. genus 2. *With decreased actions of the secering system*.' It must be premised, that M. M. signifies the method of cure.

r. 28.—¹⁰¹ 7. *Catarrhus calidus.* Warm catarrh. Consists in an increased secretion of mucus from the nostrils without inflammation. This disease, which is called a cold in the head, is frequently produced by cold air acting for some time on the membranes which line the nostrils, as it passes to the lungs in respiration. Whence a torpor of the action of the mucous glands is first introduced, as in I. 2. 3. 3. and an orgasm or increased action succeeds in consequence. Afterwards this orgasm and torpor are liable to alternate with each other for some time like the cold and hot fits of ague, attended with deficient or exuberant secretion of mucus in the nostrils.

* At other times it arises from reverse sympathy with some extensive parts of the skin, which have been exposed too long to cold, as of the head, or feet. In consequence of the torpor of these cutaneous capillaries those of the mucous membrane of the nostrils act with greater energy by reverse sympathy; and thence secrete more mucus from the blood.

blood. At the same time the absorbents, acting also with greater energy by their reverse sympathy with those of some distant part of the skin, absorb the thinner parts of the mucus more hastily; whence the mucus is both thicker and in greater quantity. Other curious circumstances attend this disease; the membrane becomes at times so thickened by its increased action in secreting the mucus, that the patient cannot breathe through his nostrils. In this situation if he warms his whole skin suddenly by fire or bed-clothes, or by drinking warm tea, the increased action of the membrane ceases by its reverse sympathy with the skin; or by the retraction of the sensorial power to other parts of the system; and the patient can breathe again through the nostrils. The same sometimes occurs for a time on going into the cold air by the deduction of heat from the mucus membrane, and its consequent inactivity or torpor. Similar to this, when the face and breast have been very hot and red, previous to the eruption of the small-pox by inoculation, and that even when exposed to cool air, I have observed the feet have been cold; till on covering them with warm flannel, as the feet have become warm, the face has cooled. See sect. xxxv. 1. 3. class II. 1. 3. 5. IV. 2. 2. 10. IV. 1. 1. 5.

‘ M. M. Evacuations, abstinence, oil externally on the nose, warm diluent fluids, warm shoes, warm night-cap.

‘ 8. *Expectoratio calida.* Warm expectoration consists of the increased secretion of mucus from the membrane, which lines the bronchia, or air cells of the lungs, without inflammation. This increased mucus is ejected by the action of coughing, and is called a cold, and resembles the catarrh of the preceding article; with which it is frequently combined.

‘ M. M. Inhale the steam of warm water, evacuations, warm bath, afterwards opium, sorbentia.’

‘ p. 98.—3. *Catarrbus frigidus.* The thin discharge from the nostrils in cold weather. The absorbent vessels become torpid by the diminution of external heat, sooner than the secreting ones, which are longer kept warm by the circulating blood, from which they select the fluid they secrete; whereas the absorbent vessels of the nostrils drink up their fluids, namely, the thin and saline part of the mucus, after it has been cooled by the atmosphere. Hence the absorbents ceasing to act, and the secreting vessels continuing some time longer to pour out, the mucus, a copious thin discharge is produced, which trickles down the nostrils in cold weather. This discharge is so aerid as to inflame the upper lip; which is owing to the neutral salts, with which it abounds, not being re-absorbed; so the tears in the *fistula lacrymalis* inflame the cheek. See class I. 1. 2. 7.

‘ 4. *Expectoratio frigida.* Cold expectoration. Where the pulmonary absorption is deficient, an habitual cough is produced, and a frequent expectoration of thin saline mucus; as is often seen in old enfeebled people. Though the stimulus of the saline fluid, which attends all secretions, is not sufficient to excite the languid absorbent vessels to imbibe it; yet this saline part, together with the increased quantity of the whole of the secreted mucus, stimulates the branches of the bronchia, so as to induce an almost incessant cough to discharge it from the lungs. A single grain of opium, or any other stimulant drug, as a wine posset with spirit of hartshorn, will cure this cold cough and the cold catarrh of the preceding article, like a charm, by stimulating

stimulating the torpid mouths of the absorbents into action. Which has given rise to an indiscriminate and frequently pernicious use of the warm regimen in coughs and catarrhs of the warm or inflammatory kind, to the great injury of many.

‘ M. M. Half a grain of opium night and morning promotes the absorption of the more fluid and saline parts, and in consequence thickens the mucus, and abates its acrimony. Warm diluent drink, wine-whey, with volatile alcali.’

This will be sufficient as an exemplification of the author’s method. In the remainder of the present article, and its sequel in our next number, we shall hold ourselves at liberty to wander among the rich variety of instruction, by which this second part of Zoonomia, in its pregnant brevity, solicits the curiosity of mankind. It is easy, where there is such profusion, to be perplexed, and afterwards to be satisfied with an inferior specimen. But the critical analyist finds a guide in the precept, which enjoins him to select such passages as will best serve to characterize the work he has under consideration.

It will be remembered by the readers of the first part of Zoonomia, that the author professes to have in view the communication of such knowledge as may preserve the diseased from receiving injury at the hands of those to whom they look for relief. Of his attention to this important object we shall bring forward the instance which we find under the article *cataract*.

P. 83.—‘ Depressing the cataract is attended with no pain, no danger, no confinement, and may be as readily repeated, if the crystalline should rise again to the centre of the eye. The extraction of the cataract is attended with considerable pain, with long confinement, generally with fever, always with inflammation, and frequently with irreparable injury to the iris, and consequent danger to the whole eye. Yet has this operation of extraction been trumpeted into universal fashion for no other reason but because it is difficult to perform, and therefore keeps the business in the hands of a few empirics, who receive larger rewards, regardless of the hazard, which is encountered by the flattered patient.

‘ A friend of mine returned yesterday from London after an absence of many weeks; he had a cataract in a proper state for the operation, and in spite of my earnest exhortation to the contrary, was prevailed upon to have it extracted rather than depressed. He was confined to his bed three weeks after the operation, and is now returned with the iris adhering on one side so as to make an oblong aperture; and which is nearly, if not totally, without contraction, and thus greatly impedes the little vision, which he possesses. Whereas I saw some patients couched by depression many years ago by a then celebrated empiric, chevalier Taylor, who were not confined above a day or two, that the eye might gradually be accustomed to light, and who saw as well as by extraction, perhaps better, without either pain, or inflammation, or any hazard of losing the eye.

‘ As the inflammation of the iris is probably owing to forcing the crystalline through the aperture of it in the operation of extracting it, could it not be done more safely by making the opening behind the iris and ciliary process into the vitreous humour? but the operation would still be more painful, more dangerous, and not more useful than that by depressing it.’

If Cullen's *first lines*, or almost any other regular system of medicine be examined, very little will be found corresponding to one great purpose of medical science, the prevention of disorders; and the public in fact is scarce in possession of a tittle of this sort of information. Dr. D. has neglected no opportunity of conveying it.

¶ 88.—‘ Delicate young ladies are very liable to become awry at many boarding-schools. This is occasioned principally by their being obliged too long to preserve an erect attitude, by sitting on forms many hours together. To prevent this the school-seats should have either backs, on which they may occasionally rest themselves; or desks before them, on which they may occasionally lean. This is a thing of greater consequence than may appear to those, who have not attended to it.

‘ When the least tendency to become awry is observed, they should be advised to lie down on a bed or sofa for an hour in the middle of the day for many months; which generally prevents the increase of this deformity by taking off for a time the pressure on the spine of the back, and at the same time tends to make them grow taller. Young persons, when nicely measured, are found to be half an inch higher in a morning than at night; as is well known to those, who enlist very young men for soldiers. This is owing to the cartilages between the bones of the back becoming compressed by the weight of the head and shoulders on them during the day. It is the same pressure which produces curvatures and distortions of the spine in growing children, where the bones are softer than usual; and which may thus be relieved by an horizontal posture for an hour in the middle of the day, or by being frequently allowed to lean on a chair, or to play on the ground on a carpet.

‘ Young ladies should also be directed, where two sleep in a bed, to change every night, or every week, their sides of the bed; which will prevent their tendency to sleep always on the same side; which is not only liable to produce crookedness, but also to occasion diseases by the internal parts being so long kept in uniform contact as to grow together. For the same reason they should not be allowed to sit always on the same side of the fire or window, because they will then be inclined too frequently to bend themselves to one side.

‘ Another great cause of injury to the shape of young ladies is from the pressure of stays, or other tight bandages, which at the same time cause other diseases by changing the form or situation of the internal parts. If a hard part of the stays, even a knot of the thread, with which they are sewed together, is pressed hard upon one side more than the other, the child bends from the side most painful, and thus occasions a curvature of the spine. To counteract this effect such stays, as have fewest hard parts, and especially such as can be daily or weekly turned, are preferable to others.

‘ Where frequent lying down on a sofa in the day-time, and swinging frequently for a short time by the hands or head, with loose dress, do not relieve a beginning distortion of the back; recourse may be had to a chair with stuffed moveable arms for the purpose of suspending the weight of the body by cushions under the arm-pits, like resting on crutches, or like the leading-strings of infants. From the top of the back of the same chair a curved steel bar may also project to suspend the body occasionally, or in part by the head, like the swing above mentioned.’

This chair is distinctly figured ; and some strictures are added on the machine invented by monsieur Vacher, and now made, with alterations for the worse, by a Mr. Jones.

Again : on lameness of the hip. p. 92.— This has induced me to believe, that this misfortune of the nodding of the head by the bone, or partial dislocation of it, by which one leg becomes shorter than the other, is sometimes occasioned by making very young children stand in what are called stocks ; that is, with their heels together, and their toes quite out. Whence the socket of the thigh bone becomes inflamed and painful, or the neck of the bone is bent downward and outwards.

In this case there is no expectation of recovering the straightness of the end of the bone ; but these patients are liable to another misfortune, that is, to acquire afterwards a distortion of the spine ; for as one leg is shorter than the other, they sink on that side, and in consequence bend the upper part of their bodies, as their shoulders, the contrary way, to balance themselves ; and then again the neck is bent back again towards the lame side, to preserve the head perpendicular ; and thus the figure becomes quite distorted like the letter S, owing originally to the deficiency of the length of one limb. The only way to prevent this curvature of the spine is for the child to wear a high-heeled shoe or patten on the lame foot, so as to support that side on the same level with the other, and thus to prevent a greater deformity.

These passages will catch the attention of parents and of persons concerned in education. Others of a similar nature are scattered through the volume ; and if in such cases there could be any just foundation for a distinction between *accurate science* and *popular instruction*, we might affirm of the present production, that it largely blends popular instruction with accurate science.

[To be continued.]

T R A V E L S.

ART. II. *A Journey from Prince of Wales's Fort in Hudson's Bay, to the Northern Ocean. Undertaken by Order of the Hudson's Bay Company, for the Discovery of Copper Mines, a North-West Passage, &c. in the Years 1769, 1770, 1771, and 1772.* By Samuel Hearne. 4to. 500 p. with 9 Maps and Plates. Price 11. 7s. in boards. Strahan and Cadell. 1795.

AGAINST the inconveniences arising to the community from exclusive mercantile companies may be placed, as a consideration of some weight, the advantageous opportunity which they afford for expeditions for the purposes of observation and discovery. Several such companies, in the enterprizing pursuit of their own interest, have made discoveries which have proved of essential service to the public. To the Hudson's Bay company, however, the British nation has, hitherto, in this respect had but few obligations. If they have not been wholly destitute of the spirit of adventure, either from the narrow extent of their capital, from the unfavourableness of their field of action, or from some other cause, they have advanced very little way beyond the original object of their

their establishment, and have only to claim the merit of some unsuccessful attempts to establish fisheries, to find a north-west passage, and to discover copper mines. Of the last of these attempts, made between the years 1769 and 1772, the present publication relates the particulars. In consequence of some samples of copper which had at different times been brought to the company's factory by northern Indians, who assured them that the mines were not very far distant from a large river supposed to fall into Hudson's bay, a journey was undertaken by Mr. Hearne, under the direction of the company, in hopes of a valuable discovery. The result of the undertaking proved unsuccessful, and only served at once to annihilate the expectation of rich copper mines, and of a north-west passage. Nevertheless, the journey furnished the traveller with an opportunity of making observations on the country through which he passed, and its inhabitants, which have been thought sufficiently interesting to be presented to the public: and though the journal is not much illuminated by science, or embellished with the graces of style, the information which it contains will, we have no doubt, procure the work a favourable reception. A journey from Hudson's bay to the northern ocean, through a dreary territory, and among hordes of Indians, cannot be expected to afford much elegant amusement, but it may yield information curious to the philosopher, and important to the merchant and the statesman. We shall, without further preamble, lay before our readers some of Mr. H.'s more interesting communications.

Mr. H., with his guide, a famous Indian leader, Matonabbee, and some other Indian attendants, having reached the latitude of $61^{\circ} 30'$ north, and long. 19° west of Prince of Wales's fort, came to a tent of northern Indians. What passed here will show the wretched state of the Indian females.

p. 88. 'From these Indians Matonabbee purchased another wife; so that he had now no less than seven, most of whom would for size have made good grenadiers. He prided himself much in the height and strength of his wives, and would frequently say, few women would carry or haul heavier loads; and though they had, in general, a very masculine appearance, yet he preferred them to those of a more delicate form and moderate stature. In a country like this, where a partner in excessive hard labour is the chief motive for the union, and the softer endearments of a conjugal life are only considered as a secondary object, there seems to be great propriety in such a choice; but if all the men were of this way of thinking, what would become of the greater part of the women, who in general are but of low stature, and many of them of a most delicate make, though not of the exactest proportion, or most beautiful mould? Take them in a body, the women are as destitute of real beauty as any nation I ever saw, though there are some few of them, when young, who are tolerable; but the care of a family, added to their constant hard labour, soon make the most beautiful among them look old and wrinkled, even before they are thirty; and several of the more ordinary ones at that age are perfect antidotes to love and gallantry. This, however, does not render them less dear and valuable to their

owners, which is a lucky circumstance for those women, and a certain proof that there is no such thing as any rule or standard for beauty. Ask a northern Indian, what is beauty? he will answer, a broad flat face, small eyes, high cheek-bones, three or four broad black lines a-cross each cheek, a low forehead, a large broad chin, a clumsy hook-nose, a tawney hide, and breasts hanging down to the belt. Those beauties are greatly heightened, or at least rendered more valuable, when the possessor is capable of dressing all kinds of skins, converting them into the different parts of their clothing, and able to carry eight or ten* stone in summer, or haul a much greater weight in winter. These, and other similar accomplishments, are all that are sought after, or expected, of a northern Indian woman. As to their temper, it is of little consequence; for the men have a wonderful facility in making the most stubborn comply with as much alacrity as could possibly be expected from those of the mildest and most obliging turn of mind; so that the only real difference is, the one obeys through fear, and the other complies cheerfully from a willing mind; both knowing that what is commanded must be done. They are, in fact, all kept at a great distance, and the rank they hold in the opinion of the men cannot be better expressed or explained, than by observing the method of treating or serving them at meals, which would appear very humiliating, to an European woman, though custom makes it fit light on those whose lot it is to bear it. It is necessary to observe, that when the men kill any large beast, the women are always sent to bring it to the tent; when it is brought there, every operation it undergoes, such as splitting, drying, pounding, &c. is performed by the women. When any thing is to be prepared for eating, it is the women who cook it; and when it is done, the wives and daughters of the greatest captains in the country are never served, till all the males, even those who are in the capacity of servants, have eaten what they think proper; and in times of scarcity, it is frequently their lot to be left without a single morsel. It is, however, natural to think they take the liberty of helping themselves in secret; but this must be done with great prudence, as capital embezzlements of provisions in such times are looked on as affairs of real consequence, and frequently subject them to a very severe beating. If they are practised by a woman whose youth and inattention to domestic concerns cannot plead in her favour, they will for ever be a blot in her character, and few men will chuse to have her for a wife.

As Mr. H. advanced northward he was joined by a large body of Indians, who had an ancient enmity against the Esquimaux Indians, and expecting to find many of them frequenting the copper mine river, determined, if possible, to destroy them. A horrid description is afterwards given of the manner in which many of these harmless people were murdered in cool blood; but we shall not shock the feelings of our readers with the detail.

* The stone here meant is fourteen pounds.

Mr. H. speaks of the northern Indian women as the mildest and most virtuous females he had seen in North America; but adds an account of a very singular practice, not quite consistent with European ideas of chastity.

P. 129. 'It may appear strange, that while I am extolling the chastity of the northern Indian women, I should acknowledge that it is a very common custom among the men of this country to exchange a night's lodging with each other's wives. But this is so far from being considered as an act which is criminal, that it is esteemed by them as one of the strongest ties of friendship between two families; and in case of the death of either man, the other considers himself bound to support the children of the deceased. Those people are so far from viewing this engagement as a mere ceremony, like most of our Christian god-fathers and god-mothers, who, notwithstanding their vows are made in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of both God and man, scarcely ever afterward remember what they have promised, that there is not an instance of a northern Indian having once neglected the duty which he is supposed to have taken upon himself to perform. The southern Indians, with all their bad qualities, are remarkably humane and charitable to the widows and children of departed friends; and as their situation and manner of life enable them to do more acts of charity with less trouble than falls to the lot of a northern Indian, few widows or orphans are ever unprovided for among them.'

'Though the northern Indian men make no scruple of having two or three sisters for wives at one time, yet they are very particular in observing a proper distance in the consanguinity of those they admit to the above-mentioned intercourse with their wives. The southern Indians are less scrupulous on those occasions; among them it is not at all uncommon for one brother to make free with another brother's wife or daughter; but this is held in abhorrence by the northern Indians.'

Having at length reached the copper mine river, Mr. H. says: P. 146. 'On my arrival here I was not a little surprised to find the river differ so much from the description which the Indians had given of it at the factory; for, instead of being so large as to be navigable for shipping, as it had been represented by them, it was at that part scarcely navigable for an Indian canoe, being no more than one hundred and eighty yards wide, every where full of shoals, and no less than three falls were in sight at first view.'

'Near the water's edge there is some wood; but not one tree grows on or near the top of the hills between which the river runs. There appears to have been formerly a much greater quantity than there is at present; but the trees seem to have been set on fire some years ago, and, in consequence, there is at present ten sticks lying on the ground, for one green one which is growing beside them. The whole timber appears to have been, even in its greatest prosperity, of so crooked and dwarfish a growth as to render it of little use for any purpose but fire-wood.'

P. 147. ' Early in the morning of the fifteenth, we set out, when I immediately began my survey, which I continued about ten miles down the river, till heavy rain coming on we were obliged to put up; and the place where we lay that night was the end, or edge of the woods, the whole space between it and the sea being entirely barren hills and wide open marshes. In the course of this day's survey, I found the river as full of shoals as the part which I had seen before; and in many places it was so greatly diminished in its width, that in our way we passed by two more capital falls.'

' Early in the morning of the sixteenth, the weather being fine and pleasant, I again proceeded with my survey, and continued it for ten miles farther down the river; but still found it the same as before, being every where full of falls and shoals.'

P. 162. ' I afterwards pursued my survey to the mouth of the river, which I found all the way so full of shoals and falls that it was not navigable even for a boat, and that it emptied itself into the sea over a ridge or bar. The tide was then out; but I judged from the marks which I saw on the edge of the ice, that it flowed about twelve or fourteen feet, which will only reach a little way within the river's mouth. The tide being out, the water in the river was perfectly fresh; but I am certain of its being the sea, or some branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and seal-skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents, and also by the number of seals which I saw on the ice. At the mouth of the river, the sea is full of islands and shoals, as far as I could see with the assistance of a good pocket telescope. The ice was not then broke up, but was melted away for about three quarters of a mile from the main shore, and to a little distance round the islands and shoals.'

' By the time I had completed this survey, it was about one in the morning of the eighteenth; but in those high latitudes, and at this season of the year, the sun is always at a good height above the horizon, so that we had not only day-light, but sunshine the whole night: a thick fog and drizzling rain then came on, and finding that neither the river nor sea were likely to be of any use, I did not think it worth while to wait for fair weather to determine the latitude exactly by an observation: but by the extraordinary care I took in observing the courses and distances when I walked from Congecathawhachaga, where I had two good observations, the latitude may be depended upon within twenty miles at the utmost. For the sake of form, however, after having had some consultation with the Indians, I erected a mark, and took possession of the coast, on behalf of the Hudson's Bay Company.'

Mr. H., in a large map, which accompanies the work, places this river between 70° and 72° of n. lat. and about 120° of w. longitude, or 25° west of Prince of Wales's fort.

Of the mine, the great object of the journey, the traveller gives the following discouraging report:

P. 173. ' After a sleep of five or six hours we once more set out, and walked eighteen or nineteen miles to the south south east, when we arrived at one of the copper mines, which lies, from

from the river's mouth about south south east, distant about twenty-nine or thirty miles.

• This mine, if it deserve that appellation, is no more than an entire jumble of rocks and gravel, which has been rent many ways by an earthquake. Through these ruins there runs a small river; but no part of it, at the time I was there, was more than knee-deep.

• The Indians who were the occasion of my undertaking this journey, represented this mine to be so rich and valuable, that if a factory were built at the river, a ship might be ballasted with the oar, instead of stone; and that with the same ease and dispatch as is done with stones at Churchill river. By their account the hills were entirely composed of that metal, all in handy lumps, like a heap of pebbles. But their account differed so much from the truth, that I and almost all my companions expended near four hours in search of some of this metal, with such poor success, that among us all, only one piece of any size could be found. This, however, was remarkably good, and weighed above four pounds. I believe the copper has formerly been in much greater plenty; for in many places, both on the surface and in the cavities and crevices of the rocks, the stones are much tinged with verdigrise.'

Mr. H.'s narrative of his return from the copper river contains some curious particulars of the manner in which certain conjurers, or doctors, perform cures. They use no medicine either for internal or external complaints, but, in ordinary cases, suck the part affected, blow it, and sing to it; and in extraordinary cases, charm away the disease by pretending to swallow knives, hatchets, boards, &c., from a notion that such feats procure a respite for the patient. Our traveller dwells too long upon these silly conjurations. Some curious particulars are related concerning the *aurora borealis* of this country.

p. 223. • The brilliancy of the *aurora borealis*, however, and of the stars, even without the assistance of the moon, made some amends for that deficiency; for it was frequently so light all night, that I could see to read a very small print. The Indians make no difference between night and day when they are hunting of beaver; but those *nocturnal* lights are always found insufficient for the purpose of hunting deer or moose.

• I do not remember to have met with any travellers into high northern latitudes, who remarked their having heard the northern lights make any noise in the air as they vary their colours or position; which may probably be owing to the want of perfect silence at the time they made their observations on those meteors. I can positively affirm, that in still nights I have frequently heard them make a rustling and crackling noise, like the waving of a large flag in a fresh gale of wind. This is not peculiar to the place of which I am now writing, as I have heard the same noise very plain at Churchill river; and in all probability it is only for want of attention that it has not been heard in every part of the northern hemisphere where they have been known to shine with any considerable degree of lustre. It is, however, very probable that these lights are sometimes much nearer the earth than they

they are at others, according to the state of the atmosphere, and this may have a great effect on the sound: but the truth or falsehood of this conjecture I leave to the determinations of those who are better skilled in natural philosophy than I can pretend to be.'

Mr. H.'s account of the *beaver* differs materially from that of former travellers: we shall copy such parts of the account as may seem to cast new light on the wonderful history of this wonderful animal.

P. 226. ' The situation of the beaver-houses is various. Where the beavers are numerous they are found to inhabit lakes, ponds, and rivers, as well as those narrow creeks which connect the numerous lakes with which this country abounds; but the two latter are generally chosen by them when the depth of water and other circumstances are suitable, as they have then the advantage of a current to convey wood and other necessaries to their habitations, and because, in general, they are more difficult to be taken, than those that are built in standing water.'

' There is no one particular part of a lake, pond, river, or creek, of which the beavers make choice for building their houses on, in preference to another: for they sometimes build on points, sometimes in the hollow of a bay, and often on small islands; they always chuse, however, those parts that have such a depth of water as will resist the frost in winter, and prevent it from freezing to the bottom.'

' The beaver that build their houses in small rivers or creeks, in which the water is liable to be drained off when the back supplies are dried up by the frost, are wonderfully taught by instinct to provide against that evil, by making a dam quite across the river, at a convenient distance from their houses. This I look upon as the most curious piece of workmanship that is performed by the beaver; not so much for the neatness of the work, as for its strength and real service; and at the same time it discovers such a degree of sagacity and foresight in the animal, of approaching evils, as is little inferior to that of the human species, and is certainly peculiar to those animals.'

' The beaver-dams differ in shape according to the nature of the place in which they are built. If the water in the river or creek have but little motion, the dam is almost straight; but when the current is more rapid, it is always made with a considerable curve, convex toward the stream. The materials made use of in those dams are drift-wood, green willows, birch, and poplars, if they can be got; also mud and stones, intermixed in such a manner as must evidently contribute to the strength of the dam; but in these dams there is no other order or method observed, except that of the work being carried on with a regular sweep, and all the parts being made of equal strength.'

' In places which have been long frequented by beaver undisturbed, their dams, by frequent repairing, become a solid bank, capable of resisting a great force both of water and ice; and as the willow, poplar, and birch generally take root and shoot up, they by degrees form a kind of regular-planted hedge, which I have

have seen in some places so tall, that birds have built their nests among the branches.

‘ Though the beaver which build their houses in lakes and other standing waters, may enjoy a sufficient quantity of their favourite element without the assistance of a dam, the trouble of getting wood and other necessaries to their habitations without the help of a current, must in some measure counterbalance the other advantages which are reaped from such a situation; for it must be observed, that the beaver which build in rivers and creeks, always cut their wood above their houses, so that the current, with little trouble, conveys it to the place required.

‘ The beaver-houses are built of the same materials as their dams, and are always proportioned in size to the number of inhabitants, which seldom exceed four old, and six or eight young ones; though, by chance, I have seen above double that number.

‘ These houses, though not altogether unworthy of admiration, fall very short of the general description given of them; for instead of order or regulation being observed in rearing them, they are of a much ruder structure than their dams.

‘ Those who have undertaken to describe the inside of beaver-houses, as having several apartments appropriated to various uses; such as eating, sleeping, store-houses for provisions, and one for their natural occasions, &c. must have been very little acquainted with the subject: or, which is still worse, guilty of attempting to impose on the credulous, by representing the greatest falsehoods as real facts. Many years constant residence among the Indians, during which I had an opportunity of seeing several hundreds of those houses, has enabled me to affirm that every thing of the kind is entirely void of truth; for, notwithstanding the sagacity of those animals, it has never been observed that they aim at any other conveniences in their houses, than to have a dry place to lie on; and there they usually eat their victuals, which they occasionally take out of the water.

‘ It frequently happens, that some of the large houses are found to have one or more partitions, if they deserve that appellation; but that is no more than a part of the main building, left by the sagacity of the beaver to support the roof. On such occasions it is common for those different apartments, as some are pleased to call them, to have no communication with each other but by water.’

P. 232. ‘ To deny that the beaver is possessed of a very considerable degree of sagacity, would be as absurd in me, as it is in those authors who think they cannot allow them too much. I shall willingly grant them their full share; but it is impossible for any one to conceive how, or by what means, a beaver, whose full height when standing erect does not exceed two feet and a half, or three feet at most, and whose fore-paws are not much larger than a half-crown piece, can “drive stakes as thick as a man’s leg into the ground three or four feet deep.” Their “wattling those stakes with twigs,” is equally absurd; and their “plastering the inside of their houses with a composition of mud and straw, and swimming with mud and stones on their tails,” are still

more

more incredible. The form and size of the animal, notwithstanding all its sagacity, will not admit of its performing such feats; and it would be as impossible for a beaver to use its tail as a trowel, except on the surface of the ground on which it walks, as it would have been for sir James Thornhill to have painted the dome of St. Paul's cathedral without the assistance of scaffolding. The joints of their tail will not admit of their turning it over their backs on any occasion whatever, as it has a natural inclination to bend downwards; and it is not without some considerable exertion that they can keep it from trailing on the ground. This being the case, they cannot sit erect like a squirrel, which is their common posture; particularly when eating, or when they are cleaning themselves, as a cat or squirrel does, without having their tails bent forward between their legs; and which may not improperly be called their trencher.

• So far are the beaver from driving stakes into the ground when building their houses, that they lay most of the wood crosswise, and nearly horizontal, and without any other order than that of leaving a hollow or cavity in the middle; when any unnecessary branches project inward, they cut them off with their teeth, and throw them in among the rest, to prevent the mud from falling through the roof. It is a mistaken notion, that the wood-work is first completed and then plastered; for the whole of their houses, as well as their dams, are from the foundation one mass of wood and mud, mixed with stones, if they can be procured. The mud is always taken from the edge of the bank, or the bottom of the creek or pond, near the door of the house; and though their fore-paws are so small, yet it is held close up between them, under their throat, that they carry both mud and stones; while they always drag the wood with their teeth.

• All their work is executed in the night: and they are so expeditious in completing it, that in the course of one night I have known them to have collected as much mud at their houses as to have amounted to some thousands of their little handfuls: and when any mixture of grass or straw has appeared in it, it has been most assuredly, mere chance, owing to the nature of the ground from which they had taken it. As to their designedly making a composition for that purpose, it is entirely void of truth.

• It is a great piece of policy in those animals, to cover, or plaster, as it is usually called, the outside of their houses every fall with fresh mud, and as late as possible in the autumn, even when the frost becomes pretty severe: as by this means it soon freezes as hard as a stone, and prevents their common enemy, the quique-hatch, from disturbing them during the winter. And as they are frequently seen to walk over their work, and sometimes to give a flap with their tail, particularly when plunging into the water, this has, without doubt, given rise to the vulgar opinion that they use their tails as a trowel, with which they plaster their houses; whereas that flapping of the tail is no more than a custom, which they always preserve, even when they become tame and domestic, and more particularly so when they are startled.

• Their food chiefly consists of a large root, something resembling a cabbage-stalk, which grows at the bottom of the lakes and rivers.

river. They eat also the bark of trees, particularly that of the poplar, birch, and willow; but the ice preventing them from getting to the land in winter, they have not any barks to feed upon during that season, except that of such sticks as they cut down in summer, and throw into the water opposite the doors of their houses; and as they generally eat a great deal, the roots above mentioned constitute a chief part of their food during the winter. In summer they vary their diet, by eating various kinds of herbage, and such berries as grow near their haunts during that season.

' When the ice breaks up in the spring, the beaver always leave their houses, and rove about the whole summer, probably in search of a more commodious situation; but in case of not succeeding in their endeavours, they return again to their old habitations a little before the fall of the leaf, and lay in their winter stock of woods. They seldom begin to repair the houses till the frost commences, and never furnish the outer-coat till the cold is pretty severe, as hath been already mentioned.

' When they shift their habitations, or when the increase of their number renders it necessary to make some addition to their houses, or to erect new ones, they begin felling the wood for these purposes early in the summer, but seldom begin to build till the middle or latter end of august, and never complete their houses till the cold weather be set in.'

An entertaining chapter is added, containing a farther account of the northern indians, their country, manufactures, customs, &c.; from which we shall select a few particulars.

P. 332. ' When two parties of those indians meet, the ceremonies which pass between them are quite different from those made use of in Europe on similar occasions; for when they advance within twenty or thirty yards of each other, they make a full halt, and in general sit or lie down on the ground, and do not speak for some minutes. At length one of them, generally an elderly man, if any be in company, breaks silence, by acquainting the other party with every misfortune that has befallen him and his companions from the last time they had seen or heard of each other; and also of all deaths and other calamities that have befallen any other indians during the same period, at least as many particulars as have come to his knowledge.'

' When the first has finished his oration, another aged orator (if there be any) belonging to the other party relates, in like manner, all the bad news that has come to his knowledge; and both parties never fail to plead poverty and famine on all occasions. If those orations contain any news that in the least affect the other party, it is not long before some of them begin to sigh and sob, and soon after break out into a loud cry, which is generally accompanied by most of the grown persons of both sexes; and sometimes it is common to see them all, men, women, and children, in one universal howl. The young girls, in particular, are often very obliging on those occasions; for I never remember to have seen a crying match (as I called it) but the greatest part of the company assisted, although some of them had no other reason for it, but that of seeing their companions do the same. Wheu

the first transports of grief subside, they advance by degrees, and both parties mix with each other, the men always associating with the men, and the women with the women. If they have any tobacco among them, the pipes are passed round pretty freely, and the conversation soon becomes general. As they are on their first meeting acquainted with all the bad news, they have by this time nothing left but good, which in general has so far the predominance over the former, that in less than half an hour nothing but smiles and cheerfulness are to be seen in every face; and if they be not really in want, small presents of provisions, ammunition, and other articles, often take place; sometimes merely as a gift, but more frequently by way of trying whether they cannot get a greater present.'

P. 343. ' Religion has not as yet begun to dawn among the northern indians; for though their conjurors do indeed sing songs, and make long speeches, to some beasts and birds of prey, as also to imaginary beings, which they say assist them in performing cures on the sick, yet they, as well as their credulous neighbours, are utterly destitute of every idea of practical religion. It is true, some of them will reprimand their youth for talking disrespectfully of particular beasts and birds; but it is done with so little energy, as to be often retorted back in derision. Neither is this, nor their custom of not killing wolves and quichehatches, universally observed, and those who do it can only be viewed with more pity and contempt than the others; for I always found it arose merely from the greater degree of confidence which they had in the supernatural power of their conjurors, which induced them to believe, that talking lightly or disrespectfully of any thing they seemed to approve, would materially affect their health and happiness in this world: and I never found any of them that had the least idea of futurity. Matonabbee, without one exception, was a man of as clear ideas in other matters as any that I ever saw: he was not only a perfect master of the southern indian language, and their belief, but could tell a better story of our saviour's birth and life, than one half of those who call themselves christians; yet he always declared to me, that neither he, nor any of his countrymen, had an idea of a future state. Though he had been taught to look on things of this kind as useless, his own good sense had taught him to be an advocate for universal toleration; and I have seen him several times assist at some of the most sacred rites performed by the southern indians, apparently with as much zeal, as if he had given as much credit to them as they did; and with the same liberality of sentiment he would, I am persuaded, have assisted at the altar of a christian church, or in a jewish synagogue; not with a view to reap any advantage himself, but merely, as he observed, to assist others who believed in such ceremonies.'

' Being thus destitute of all religious control, these people have, to use Matonabbee's own words, "nothing to do but consult their own interest, inclinations, and passions; and to pass through this world with as much ease and contentment as possible, without any hopes of reward, or painful fear of punishment, in the next." In this state of mind they are, when in prosperity,

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the happiest of mortals ; for nothing but personal or family calamities can disturb their tranquillity, while misfortunes of the lesser kind fit light on them. Like most other uncivilized people, they bear bodily pain with great fortitude, though in that respect I cannot think them equal to the southern Indians.

‘ Old age is the greatest calamity that can befall a northern Indian ; for when he is past labour, he is neglected, and treated with great disrespect, even by his own children. They not only serve him last at meals, but generally give him the coarsest and worst of the victuals : and such of the skins as they do not chuse to wear, are made up in the clumsiest manner into clothing for their aged parents ; who, as they had, in all probability, treated their fathers and mothers with the same neglect, in their turns, submitted patiently to their lot, even without a murmur, knowing it to be the common misfortune attendant on old age ; so that they may be said to wait patiently for the melancholy hour when, being no longer capable of walking, they are to be left alone, to starve, and perish for want. This, however shocking and unnatural it may appear, is nevertheless so common, that, among those people, one half at least of the aged persons of both sexes absolutely die in this miserable condition.

‘ The northern Indians call the *aurora borealis*, ed-thin ; that is, deer* : and when that meteor is very bright, they say that deer is plentiful in that part of the atmosphere ; but they have never yet extended their ideas so far as to entertain hopes of tasting those celestial animals.

‘ Beside this silly notion, they are very superstitious with respect to the existence of several kinds of fairies, called by them nant e-na, whom they frequently say they see, and who are supposed by them to inhabit the different elements of earth, sea, and air, according to their several qualities. To one or other of those fairies they usually attribute any change in their circumstances, either for the better or worse ; and as they are led into this way of thinking entirely by the art of the conjurors, there is no such thing as any general mode of belief ; for those jugglers differ so much from each other in their accounts of these beings, that those who believe any thing they say, have little to do but to change their opinions according to the will and caprice of the conjuror, who is almost daily relating some new whim, or extraordinary event, which, he says, has been revealed to him in a dream, or by some of his favourite fairies, when on a hunting excursion.’

‘ * Their ideas in this respect are founded on a principle one would not imagine. Experience has shewn them, that when a hairy deer-skin is briskly stroked with the hand in a dark night, it will emit many sparks of electrical fire, as the back of a cat will. The idea which the southern Indians have of this meteor is equally romantic, though more pleasing, as they believe it to be the spirits of their departed friends dancing in the clouds ; and when the *aurora borealis* is remarkably bright, at which time they vary most in colour, form, and situation, they say, their deceased friends are very merry.’

The work concludes with some account of the principal quadrupeds and birds of these northern regions, which, though not perfectly scientifical, will not be unacceptable to naturalists.

BIOGRAPHY.

ART. III. *The Life of Milton, In Three Parts. To which are added, Conjectures on the Origin of Paradise Lost: With an Appendix.* By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. 360 p. Pr. 15s. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

POLITICAL prejudice never appears more justly reprehensible, than when it attempts to cast a veil over distinguished merit, and loads exalted characters with obloquy. To those who have admired not only the genius, but the virtues of Milton, it must have been an occasion of much regret, that the delineation of his character should lately have fallen into the hands of a writer, whose talents could not fail to stamp a certain degree of authority on his decision, but whose inveterate antipathy to every thing allied to republicanism rendered him incapable of paying a just and liberal tribute to the memory of an enemy to the Stuarts, though that enemy was the writer of *Paradise Lost*. Nothing reflects more discredit on the name of Dr. Johnson, than the credulity with which he embraces every tale, which seems in the least degree to tarnish the lustre of Milton's reputation, and the perversity with which he labours to exhibit his character in an unfavourable light, and to put the worst construction upon his actions. In these circumstances, every impartial friend to merit must be pleased to see the defence of Milton undertaken by a writer so eminently qualified for the task as Mr. Hayley.

A life written with the particular view of wiping off asperion will, of course, have the appearance of panegyric. But, though Mr. H. often speaks in the tone of an advocate, he never forgets the duty of a faithful biographer. The principal object of this work is not to confirm the general suffrage, by which Milton has been declared pre-eminent in the first class of poets, but to render justice to his personal virtues. In executing this design, the ingenious author has contrived to throw an air of novelty over a subject already frequently discussed, and to give a degree of interest and illustration to the life of Milton, which it has not hitherto received, by weaving into his narrative selections of verse and prose from the writings of Milton, particularly of those passages in which he has spoken of himself, and which are peculiarly suited to show his native disposition, and thus to remove the mistakes which have been entertained concerning his character. Though Mr. H.'s poetical talents would, doubtless, have enabled him to give an elegant translation of the latin and italian verses which he has quoted, he has modestly chosen to present the passages to the English reader, in what he justly calls 'the elegant and spirited version' of Mr. Cowper. For Mr. Cowper's permission

mission to transcribe any part of the Complete translation of Milton's Latin and Italian Poetry, with which that gentleman, so deservedly admired as an original poet of distinguished merit, will shortly oblige the world, Mr. H. politely makes his acknowledgments; at the same time expressing, in glowing terms of esteem and affection, the high value he sets on Mr. Cowper's friendship. Such cordiality, between members of a body proverbially characterized as *irritabile genus*, is highly pleasing. Many other proofs of Mr. H.'s candid spirit, and friendly temper, will be found in this work, particularly in a dedication, of considerable length, to Dr. Warton, where easy urbanity appears happily united with correct taste and sound judgment. This character may, indeed, be applied with equal propriety to the whole work, in which the author's patient good-humour is seldom interrupted even by Johnson's rugged illiberality. Though we cannot follow Mr. H. through every part of his apology for Milton, we must not deny our readers the gratification of perusing some passages, in which the author has, we think, very successfully repelled the invidious reflections thrown upon Milton's personal character, by the celebrated writer of the *Lives of the Poets*.

From the *first part* of the *Life*, which brings Milton to the thirty-second year of his age, when he returned from his foreign tour, we shall select two specimens of Mr. Cowper's version. As a complete refutation of the injurious assertion, that Milton hated all whom he was required to obey, Mr. H. quotes an elegy strongly expressive of respect and tenderness, addressed to his domestic tutor, Mr. Thomas Young. The lines *Vivit ibi antiquæ, &c.* are thus rendered: p. 10.

' There lives, deep learn'd, and primitively just,
A faithful steward of his Christian trust;
My friend, and favourite inmate of my heart,
That now is forc'd to want its better part.
What mountains now, and seas, alas! how wide!
Me from my other, dearer self divide!
Dear as the sage, renown'd for moral truth,
To the prime spirit of the Attic youth!
Dear as the Stagyrite to Ammon's son,
His pupil, who disdain'd the world he won!
Nor so did Chiron, or so Phoenix shone,
In young Achilles' eyes, as he in mine:
First led by him, thro' sweet Aonian shade,
Each sacred haunt of Pindus I survey'd;
Explor'd the fountain, and the Muse my guide,
Thrice steep'd my lips in the Castalian tide.'

One of Milton's Italian sonnets, contains a singular and spirited sketch of his own character: we shall copy it with Mr. Cowper's translation: p. 42.

' Giovane piano, e semplicetto amante
Poi che fuggir me stesso in dubbio fono,
Madonna a voi del mio cuor l'humil dono

Farò divoto; io certo a prove tante
 L'hebbi fedele, intrepido, costante,
 De pensieri leggiadri accorto, e buono;
 Quando rugge il gran mondo, e scocca il tuono,
 S'arma di se, e d'intero diamante;
 Tanto del forse, e d'invidia sicuro,
 Di timori, e speranze, al popol use,
 Quanto d'ingegno, e d'alto valor vago,
 E di cetra sonora, e delle muse;
 Sol troverete in tal parte men duro,
 Ove' amor mise l'insanabil ago.

* Enamour'd, artless, young, on foreign ground,
 Uncertain whether from myself to fly,
 To thee, dear lady, with an humble sigh,
 Let me devote my heart, which I have found
 By certain proofs, not few, intrepid, sound,
 Good, and addicted to conceptions high:
 When tempest shakes the world, and fires the sky,
 It rests in adamant, self wrapt around,
 As safe from envy and from outrage rude,
 From hopes and fears that vulgar minds abuse,
 As fond of genius, and fixt solitude,
 Of the resounding lyre, and every muse:
 Weak you will find it in one only part,
 Now pierc'd by love's immedicable dart.

Upon the disgraceful story, which Johnson affects to be ashamed to relate, of Milton's having suffered corporal punishment at the University, Mr. H. thus remarks, p. 16.

* In confirmation of this incident, which appears improbable, though supported by Mr. Warton, the biographical critic alledges the following passage from the first Elegy:

* Jam nec arundiferum mihi cura revisere Camum,
 Nec dudum vetiti me laris angit amor;
 Nec duri libet usque minas perferre magistri,
 Cæteraque ingenio non subeunda meo.
 * Nor zeal nor duty now my steps impel
 To reedy Cam and my forbidden cell;
 'Tis time that I a pedant's threats disdain,
 And fly from wrongs my soul will ne'er sustain.

* Dr. Johnson considers these expressions as an absolute proof, that Milton was obliged to undergo this indignity; but they may suggest a very different idea. From all the light we can obtain concerning this anecdote, it seems most probable, that Milton was threatened, indeed, with what he considered as a punishment, not only dishonourable but unmerited; that his manly spirit disdained to submit to it; and that he was therefore obliged to acquiesce in a short exile from Cambridge.

Mr. H. closes the first part of his work with the following general encomium on the early period of the poet's life: p. 52.

* We have now attended him to the middle stage of his life, at which it may not be improper to pause, and make a few remarks

marks on the years that are passed, and those that are yet in prospect. We behold him, at the age of thirty-two, recalled to England, from a foreign excursion of improvement and delight, by a manly sense of what he owed to his country in a season of difficulty and danger. His thoughts and conduct on this occasion are the more noble and becoming, as all his preceding years had been employed in forming, for the most important purposes, a firm and lofty mind, and in furnishing it abundantly with whatever might be useful and honourable to himself and others, in the various exigencies and vicissitudes both of private and public life. We have traced him through a long course of infantine, academical, domestic, and foreign study; we have seen him distinguished by application, docility, and genius; uncommonly attached to his instructors, and most amiably grateful to his parents; in friendship, ardent and steady; in love, though tender not intemperate; as a poet, sensible of his rare mental endowments, yet peculiarly modest in regard to his own productions; enamoured of glory, yet as ready to bestow as anxious to merit praise; in his person and manners so fashioned to prepossess all men in his favour, that even foreigners gave him credit for those high literary achievements, which were to shed peculiar lustre on his latter days, and considered him already as a man, of whom his country might be proud.

With such accomplishments, and such expectations in his behalf, Milton returned to England. The subsequent portion of his life, however gloomy and tempestuous, will be found to correspond, at least in the close of it, with the radiant promise of his youth. We shall see him deserting his favourite haunts of Parnassus, to enter the thorny paths of ecclesiastical and political dissension: his principles as a disputant will be condemned and approved, according to the prevalence of opposite and irreconcilable opinions, that fluctuate in the world; but his upright consistency of conduct deserves applause from all honest and candid men of every persuasion. The Muse, indeed, who had blest him with singular endowments, and given him so lively a sense of his being constituted a poet by nature, that when he wrote not verse, he had the use (to borrow his own forcible expression) "but of his left hand;" the Muse alone might have a right to reproach him with having acted against inward conviction; but could his Muse have visibly appeared to reprove his desertion of her service in a parental remonstrance, he might have answered her, as the young Harry of Shakespear answers the tender and keen reproof of his royal father,

"I will redeem all this,
"And in the closing of some glorious day
"Be bold to tell you that I am your son."

The second part of the work relates to the particulars of Milton's life, from the time when he undertook the office of a preceptor, till his release from imprisonment in 1660. In order to refute the contemptuous sarcasm of Johnson, on Milton's plan of education, Mr. H. quotes passages from his writings to prove

that his ideas on this subject were truly Socratic. Concerning Milton's controversial writings in theology, his biographer fairly owns, that there are in them 'some passages, which must be read with concern by his most passionate admirers ;' but adds, that 'even the gloom and severity of these are compensated by such occasional flashes of ardent fancy, of sound argument, and of sublime devotion, as may extort commendation even from readers who love not the author.' In the treatises on divorce, occasioned by the author's unhappy marriage, Mr. H. not only vindicates the purity of the writer's intention, but admires the liberality of his views. On Milton's *Areopagitica*, a speech for the liberty of unlicensed printing, our author makes the following judicious and liberal observations : p. 88.

' Had the author of the *Paradise Lost* left us no composition but his *Areopagitica*, he would be still entitled to the affectionate veneration of every Englishman, who exults in that intellectual light, which is the noblest characteristic of his country, and for which England is chiefly indebted to the liberty of the press. Our constant advocate for freedom, in every department of life, vindicated this most important privilege with a mind fully sensible of its value ; he poured all his heart into this vindication, and, to speak of his work in his own energetic language, we may justly call it, what he has defined a good book to be, "the precious life-blood of a master spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life."

' His late biographer, instead of praising Milton for a service so honourably rendered to literature, seems rather desirous of annihilating its merit, by directing his sarcastic animosity against the liberty of the press. "It seems not more reasonable," says Johnson, "to leave the right of printing unrestrained, because writers may be afterwards censured, than it would be to sleep with doors unbolted, because by our laws we can hang a thief."

' This is servile sophistry ; the author's illustration of a thief may be turned against himself. To suffer no book to be published without a license, is tyranny as absurd as it would be to suffer no traveller to pass along the highway without producing a certificate that he is not a robber.'

Milton wrote his *Iconoclastes*, or *Image breaker*, to counteract the effect of the famous book intitled, *Icon Basilike*, or the Royal Image. Remarking on this work, Johnson has brought against Milton the heavy charge of dishonesty in interpolating into the *Icon Basilike* a prayer taken from Sidney's *Arcadia*. This charge has produced the following spirited and decisive, but at the same time very candid, defence. p. 102.

' A simple question will show the want of candour in this attempt to impeach the moral credit of Milton. By whom is he suspected of this dishonesty ? His severe biographer sinks the name of his own old and dishonourable associate in depreciating Milton, and does not inform us that it was the infamous Lauder, who, having failed to blast the reputation of the poet, with equal impotence and fury pursued his attack against the probity of the man

man in an execrable pamphlet entitled "King Charles the First vindicated from the Charge of Plagiarism brought against him by Milton, and Milton himself convicted of Forgery." Instead of naming Lauder, who persisted in trying to substantiate this most improbable charge, Johnson would insidiously lead us to believe, that the respectable Dr. Birch supported it, though Birch, who had indeed printed, in the appendix to his *Life of Milton*, the idle story which Lauder urges as a proof of Milton's imposture, had properly rejected that story from the improved edition of his work, and honourably united with another candid biographer of the poet, the learned bishop of Bristol, in declaring that "such contemptible evidence is not to be admitted against a man, who had a soul above being guilty of so mean an action."

There are some calumnies so utterly despicable and absurd, that to refute them elaborately is almost a disgrace: did not the calumny I am now speaking of belong to this description, it might be here observed, that a writer who published remarks on Johnson's *Life of Milton*, in which the asperity of that biographer is opposed with superior asperity, has proved, with new arguments, the futility of the charge in question. Instead of repeating these, let me observe, that the attempt of Johnson to revive a base and sufficiently refuted imputation against the great author whose life he was writing, is one of the most extraordinary proofs that literature can exhibit how far the virulence of political hatred may pervert a powerful mind, even a mind which makes moral truth its principal pursuit, and assiduously labours to be just. This remark is not made in enmity to Johnson, but to shew how cautious the most cultivated understanding should be in watching the influence of any hostile prejudice. Milton himself may be also urged as an example to enforce the same caution; for though he was certainly no impostor in imputing the prayer in question to the king, yet his considering the king's use of it as an offence against heaven, is a pitiable absurdity; an absurdity as glaring as it would be to affirm, that the divine poet is himself profane in assigning to a speech of the Almighty, in his poem, the two following verses:

"Son of my bosom, son who art alone
My word, my wisdom, and effectual might—

Because they are partly borrowed from a line in Virgil, addressed by a heathen goddess to her child:

"Nate, meæ vires, mea magna potentia folus."

"The heat of political animosity could thus throw a mist over the bright intellects of Milton; yet his *Iconoclastes*, taken all together, is a noble effort of manly reason; it uncanonized a fictitious saint, who assuredly had no pretension to the title."

Johnson's accusation against Milton, of adulation and servility to the usurper, is very fully and satisfactorily refuted: this part of the defence will particularly claim the reader's attention, but is too long to be inserted in this place. We must not, however, pass over the following spirited reply to the two injurious reflections of Dr. Johnson. p. 151.

"This

" This darkness (says Johnson) had his eyes been better employed, had undoubtedly deserved compassion." What! had Milton no title to compassion for his personal calamity, because he had nobly sacrificed his sight to what he esteemed an important discharge of his public duty?—Oh egregious morality! to which no feeling heart can subscribe. No, say his implacable enemies, he lost his eyes in the vindication of wickedness: but admitting their assertion in its full force, justice and humanity still contend, that, instead of diminishing, it rather doubles his claim to compassion; to suffer in a spirited defence of guilt, that we mistake and esteem as virtue, is, perhaps, of all pitiable misfortunes, what a candid and considerate mind should be most willing to pity.

But Johnson proceeds to say, " of evil tongues for Milton to complain required impudence at least equal to his other powers; Milton, whose warmest advocates must allow, that he never spared any asperity of reproach or brutality of insolence."

These are, perhaps, the most bitter words that were ever applied by an author, illustrious himself for great talents, and still more for christian virtue, to a character pre-eminent in genius and in piety. By shewing to what a marvellous degree a very cultivated and devout mind may be exasperated by party rage, may they serve to caution every fervid spirit against that outrageous animosity, which a difference of sentiment in politics and religion is so apt to produce. It would seem almost an affront to the memory of Milton to vindicate him elaborately from a charge, whose very words exhibit so palpable a violation of decency and truth.

His coldest advocates, instead of allowing that he never spared any brutality of insolence, may rather contend, that his native tenderness of heart, and very graceful education, rendered it hardly possible for him at any time to be insolent and brutal. It would have been wonderful indeed, had he not written with some degree of asperity, when his antagonist Salmasius asserted, that he ought to suffer an ignominious and excruciating death. Against the unfortunate (but not innocent) Charles the First, he expressly declares, that he published nothing till after his decease; and that he meant not, as he says in one of his Latin works, to insult the manes of the king, is indeed evident to an unprejudiced reader, from the following very beautiful and pathetic sentence, with which he begins his answer to the *Eikon Basilei*:

" To descant on the misfortunes of a person fallen from so high a dignity, who hath also paid his final debt, both to nature and his faults, is neither of itself a thing commendable, nor the intention of this discourse." Those who fairly consider the exasperated state of the contending parties, when Milton wrote, and compare his political compositions with the savage ribaldry of his opponents, however mistaken they may think him in his ideas of government, will yet find more reason to admire his temper than to condemn his asperity.

If in a quiet study, at a very advanced period of life, and at a distance of more than a century from the days of the republic;

public; if a philosopher so situated could be buried by political heat to speak of Milton with such harsh intemperance of language, though writing under the friendly title of his biographer, with what indulgence ought we to view that asperity in Milton himself, which arose from the immediate pressure of public oppression and of private outrage; for his spirit had been inflamed, not only by the sight of many national vexations, but by seeing his own moral character attacked with the most indecent and execrable calumny that can excite the indignation of insulted virtue.'

Mr. H. closes this part of the life with the following general remarks. p. 158.

' In this fortunate escape from the grasp of triumphant and vindictive power, Milton may be considered as terminating his political life: commencing at his return from the continent, it had extended to a period of twenty years; in three of these he had been afflicted with partial but increasing blindness, and in six he had been utterly blind. His exertions in this period of his life had exposed him to infinite obloquy, but his generous and enlightened country, whatever may be the state of her political opinions, will remember, with becoming equity and pride, that the sublimest of her poets, though deceived as he certainly was by extraordinary pretenders to public virtue, and subject to great illusion in his ideas of government, is entitled to the first of encomiums, the praise of being truly an honest man: since it was assuredly his constant aim to be the steady disinterested adherent and encomiast of truth and justice; hence we find him continually displaying those internal blessings, which have been happily called, "the clear witnesses of a benign nature," an innocent conscience, and a satisfied understanding.

' Such is the imperfection of human existence, that mistaken notions and principles are perfectly compatible with elevation, integrity, and satisfaction of mind. The writer must be a slave of prejudice, or a sycophant to power, who would represent Milton as deficient in any of these noble endowments. Even Addison seems to lose his rare Christian candour, and Hume his philosophical precision, when these two celebrated though very different authors speak harshly of Milton's political character, without paying due acknowledgment to the rectitude of his heart.'

The third part of this work describes the last years of Milton's life, after the termination of his political career. It is chiefly occupied in narrating domestic incidents, which, as the biographer remarks, afford an animating example of the noble use to which a cultivated and religious mind may convert even declining life, though embittered by a variety of afflictions, and darkened by personal calamity. From this part we have only room to quote a few of the author's concluding remarks, from which it will appear, that though a zealous apologist for Milton, he is by no means indiscriminately his panegyrist.

p. 217. ' There can hardly be any contemplation more painful, than to dwell on the virulent excesses of eminent and good men;

men; yet the utility of such contemplation may be equal to its pain. What mildness and candour should it not infil into ordinary mortals to observe, that even genius and virtue weaken their title to respect, in proportion as they recede from that evangelical charity, which should influence every man in his judgment of another.

The strength and the acuteness of sensation, which partly constitute genius, have a great tendency to produce virulence, if the mind is not perpetually on its guard against that subtle, insinuating, and corrosive passion, hatred against all whose opinions are opposite to our own. Johnson professed, in one of his letters, to love a good hater; and in the latin correspondence of Milton, there are words that imply a similarity of sentiment; they both thought there might be a sanctified bitterness, to use an expression of Milton, towards political and religious opponents; yet surely these two devout men were both wrong, and both in some degree unchristian in this principle. To what singular iniquities of judgment such a principle may lead, we might, perhaps, have had a most striking, and double proof, had it been possible for these two energetic writers to exhibit alternately a portrait of each other. Milton, adorned with every graceful endowment, highly and holily accomplished as he was, appears, in the dark colouring of Johnson, a most unamiable being; but could he revisit earth in his moral character, with a wish to retaliate, what a picture might be drawn, by that sublime and offended genius, of the great moralist, who has treated him with such excesses of asperity. The passions are powerful colourists, and marvellous adepts in the art of exaggeration; but the portraits executed by love (famous as he is for overcharging them) are infinitely more faithful to nature, than gloomy sketches from the heavy hand of hatred; a passion not to be trusted or indulged even in minds of the highest purity or power; since hatred, though it may enter the field of contest under the banner of justice, yet generally becomes so blind and outrageous, from the heat of contention, as to execute, in the name of virtue, the worst purposes of vice. Hence arises that species of calumny the most to be regretted, the calumny lavished by men of talents and worth on their equals or superiors, whom they have rashly and blindly hated for a difference in opinion. To such hatred the fervid and opposite characters, who gave rise to this observation, were both more inclined, perhaps, by nature and by habit, than christianity can allow. The freedom of these remarks on two very great, and equally devout, though different writers, may possibly offend the partizans of both: in that case my consolation will be, that I have endeavoured to speak of them with that temperate, though undaunted sincerity, which may satisfy the spirit of each in a purer state of existence. There is one characteristic in Milton, which ought to be considered as the chief source of his happiness and of his fame; I mean his early and perpetual attachment to religion. It must gratify every christian to reflect, that the man of our country most eminent for energy of mind, for intenseness of application, and for

for frankness and intrepidity in asserting whatever he believed to be the cause of truth, was so confirmedly devoted to Christianity, that he seems to have made the Bible, not only the rule of his conduct, but the prime director of his genius. His poetry flowed from the Scripture, as if his unparalleled poetical powers had been expressly given him by Heaven for the purpose of imparting to religion such lustre as the most splendid of human faculties could bestow. As in the *Paradise Lost* he seems to emulate the sublimity of Moses and the prophets, it appears to have been his wish, in the *Paradise Regained*, to copy the sweetness and simplicity of the milder evangelists. If the futile remarks that were made upon the latter work, on its first appearance, excited the spleen of the great author, he would probably have felt still more indignant, could he have seen the comment of Warburton. That disgusting writer, whose critical dictates form a fantastic medley of arrogance, acuteness, and absurdity, has asserted, that the plan of *Paradise Regained* is very unhappy, and that nothing was easier than to have invented a good one.'

P. 228.—‘ To such misrepresentations has the life and the poetry of Milton been exposed, that both have been considered as too austere to be amiable, though assuredly, both in the one and the other, the most engaging qualities are admirably united to the most awful—the graceful and the tender to the grand and the sublime.

‘ The attractions of his muse have triumphed over obloquy, and in the estimation of the world she is justly thought to resemble the enchanting Eve of the poet,

‘ ————— Adorn'd
With what all earth or heav'n could bestow
To make her amiable.

‘ But equal justice has not hitherto been rendered to the personal virtues of the author; it has, therefore, been my chief aim, in a delineation of his life, to make Milton rather more beloved than more admired; and I may the more reasonably hope to succeed in that idea, because, though I have never been attached to his political opinions, yet, in proportion to my researches into his character as a man, he has advanced in my esteem and my affection.

‘ I lament that the necessity of investigating many misrepresentations, and of correcting much asperity against him, has frequently obliged me to speak rather in the tone of an advocate, than of a common biographer; but I may say, in the words of the great Roman author, pleading the cause of a poet infinitely less entitled to love and admiration; *Hunc ego non diligam, non admirer, non omni ratione defendendum putem?* Atque sic a summis hominibus eruditissimisque accepimus, cæterarum rerum studia et doctrina, et præceptis, et arte constare; poetam natura ipsa valere, et mentis viribus excitari, et quasi divino quodam spiritu afflari—if poetical powers may ever deserve to be regarded as heavenly inspiration, such undoubtedly were those of Milton, and the use to which he applied them was worthy of the fountain whence

they flowed. He is pre-eminent in that class of poets, very happily described in the two following verses by the amiable lord Falkland;

‘ Who, while of heav’n the glories they recite,
Find it within, and feel the joys they write.

‘ It is by the epic compositions of Milton alone that England may esteem herself as a rival to antiquity in the highest province of literature; and it appears therefore just, that the memory of the man, to whom she is indebted for the purest, the most extensive, and permanent glory, should for ever excite her affectionate veneration.’

In the annexed conjectures on the origin of *Paradise Lost*, Mr. H., after giving a brief account of Lauder’s infamous attempt to prove Milton a plagiary, endeavours to support the probability of Voltaire’s conjecture, that Milton, having seen at Florence a comedy called *Adamo*, written by Andreini, the subject of which was the fall of man, caught from this performance the first idea of his divine poem. A brief analysis is given of this drama, and a short selection from a few of the most remarkable scenes. The conjecture is ingeniously maintained, and will, at least, afford the reader elegant amusement. The appendix contains entertaining extracts from the *Adamo* of Andreini, and an analysis of another Italian drama on the same subject, entitled *La Scena Tragica d’ Adamo ed Eva*.

ART. IV. *Biographical Sketches of eminent Persons, whose Portraits form Part of the Duke of Dorset’s Collection at Knole. With a brief Description of the Place. Embellished with a Front and East View of Knole.* 8vo. 164 pages. Price 6s. in Boards. Stockdale. 1795.

THE title of this work sufficiently explains its design. The preface informs the reader, that these sketches were originally drawn up for private use, but are now published for general amusement. The valuable collection of portraits, which gave occasion to these memoirs, and are to be seen at the duke of Dorset’s seat at Knole, were, for the most part, painted by Holbein and his pupils. The reader will not, in these brief sketches, meet with much new information; but he will find them agreeably written, and in several parts very amusing. The subjects of the memoirs are—John Whitgift, archbishop of Canterbury; Thomas Sackville, earl of Dorset; Robert Cecil, earl of Salisbury; sir Francis Drake; don John of Austria; William Cecil, lord Burleigh; Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester; Richard Bancroft, archbishop of Canterbury; Thomas Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury; Admiral Blake; sir Francis Walsingham, secretary of state; Charles Howard, earl of Nottingham; Alexander Farnese, duke of Parma; Henry of Lorraine, duke of Guise; Charles of Lorraine, duke of Guise; John Fisher, bishop of Rochester; John Dudley, duke of Northumberland; George Clifford, earl of Cumberland; John Wickliffe; Alphonso d’ Avalos; Roger Bacon; Stephen Gardiner, bishop of Winchester; sir James Wilford; Thomas Egerton, baron of Ellesmere; Thomas Cromwell, earl of Essex; Thomas Howard, duke of Norfolk; Thomas Howard, earl

earl of Suffolk; Henry Howard, earl of Northampton; Thomas Ratcliff, earl of Sussex; Charles, duke of Bourbon; John, duke of Bourbon; William of Nassau; sir Walter Mildmay; sir Christopher Hatton; Henry Fitz-Allen, earl of Arundel; sir Thomas More; Cardinal Wolsey; sir John Norris; and sir William Herbert, earl of Pembroke.

As a specimen we select the memoir of William Cecil, lord Burleigh.

P. 23. William Cecil, lord Burleigh, 1521 to 1598, was the son of Richard Cecil, groom of the robes, yeoman of the wardrobe to Henry VIII. and sheriff of Northamptonshire; he was sent early to Cambridge and from thence to Gray's Inn. He married in his twentieth year a sister of sir John Cheek, tutor to Edward VI. and after her death, a daughter of sir Anthony Cook; his marriages did not prevent him following the study of the law with great ardor and assiduity, and he soon raised himself to eminence in his profession. When the duke of Somerset was made protector, he took Cecil into his family, and first made him a master of requests, in the next year custos brevium, in the third custos rotulorum for the county of Lincoln, and lastly secretary of state. At the death of the king, he was one of lady Jane Grey's privy council, notwithstanding which, queen Mary so curbed her vindictive spirit as far as related to him, that she frequently consulted him, nor was he less respected by her ministers for his wisdom and virtue. On the accession of Elizabeth, he was again appointed secretary of state, and unanimously elected chancellor of the university of Cambridge. During the whole of the reign of Elizabeth, Burleigh uniformly retained his master's favour; his advice was always the result of mature experience: equally circumspect and moderate was the plan he proposed for the settlement of religion; rejecting absurd and superstitious ceremonies, while he retained whatever was necessary to the support of decency and good order; the regulation of a debased coin, an undertaking both arduous and politic; the protecting the reformed church in Scotland and in France; the queen's prudent and guarded conduct towards Spain, (the result of Burleigh's councils) are all sufficient proofs of his political sagacity. The queen in 1551 created him baron Burleigh, soon after the suppression of the northern rebellion, which was chiefly effected by the prudent measures of Cecil. Leicester, sir Thomas Throgmorton, and the Spanish ambassador, were his inveterate enemies; the latter carried his vindictive spirit so far, as to hire assassins to take away his life, for which base plot the queen ordered him to quit the kingdom. In 1572 Burleigh was made knight of the garter; and soon after, on the death of the marquis of Winchester, lord high treasurer. There is little doubt but the fate of Mary queen of Scots is principally to be attributed to him, and there is as little doubt but that he acted in perfect conformity to Elizabeth's wishes, though possibly without the sanction of her positive commands; for notwithstanding all her show of immoderate grief and indignation at the proceeding, Burleigh after a short interval was restored to his wonted credit and influence. In 1588 he drew up the plan of defence against the Spanish armada. Every thing, indeed, that related to the state either originated or centered in

in his councils; all degrees of people addressed themselves to him; high churchmen for patronage, puritans for protection, fugitives for pardon, lieutenants of counties for instructions, and the lord high admiral for supplies, nor was any application ever made to him that was not considered and answered; his favourite maxim was, "that the shortest way to do many things was to do only one thing at once." The last and not the least glorious act of his life was making peace with Spain. He died August 4, 1598, with great serenity, in the midst of his children, friends, and servants, aged seventy-seven years.

His person was agreeable, his countenance florid, the hair of his head and beard perfectly white, his temper serene and cheerful; his mode of living was generous and hospitable, at the expence in his family of thirty pounds a week in his absence, and from forty to fifty when present; he had all his children and their descendants usually at his table; whomsoever he conversed with, it was always on the footing of equality, and no one left his company but with praise of his ease and affability; this condescending behaviour he practised even towards his servants, and would talk with the country people on their own affairs in their own manner; he used to ride on a little mule about his gardens at Theobalds, and amuse himself as a spectator of the pastimes of others, but never joined in them. His numerous dependants, his equipages, his splendid tables, were all the effects of his sense of propriety, but not of his inclination; for no man more anxiously courted privacy, nor was any one better qualified to enjoy it. He left a great estate (amounting to 4000l. per annum in land, and 25,000l. in effects) to his posterity, and to his eternal honour, not a single act of injustice or oppression was urged against him throughout the whole of his long and wise administration.

L. M. S.

CHEMISTRY.

ART. V. *A Dictionary of Chemistry, exhibiting the present State of the Theory and Practice of that Science, its Application to Natural Philosophy, the Processes of Manufactures, Metallurgy, and numerous other Arts dependent on the Properties and Habitudes of Bodies in the mineral, vegetable, and animal Kingdoms. With a considerable Number of Tables, expressing the elective Attractions, Specific Gravities, comparative Heats, component Parts, Combinations and other Affections of the Objects of chemical Research.* By William Nicholson. In two Volumes. 4to. 1132 pages. 5 plates. Price 21. 10s. in boards. 1795.

CONSIDERING the great utility of chemical knowledge, collected in the dictionary form, and the inadequacy of the latest of them in our language, that of Macquer, by Mr. Keir, to the diffusion of even a general notion of chemistry, subsequent to the introduction of the pneumatic or antiphlogistic principles, with numerous newly discovered facts, which gave birth to the new order in chemistry; it is not surprising, that the public should have called upon

upon the bookseller, and the bookseller have applied to his friends for a new dictionary. The want of a work of this kind was particularly felt on account of Mr. Keir's not proceeding with his dictionary, of which a small part, namely, through a portion of the first letter of the alphabet, was published in 1779.

With much pain we read the respectable author's apology for the imperfection of his work. 'I engaged,' says he, 'in the plan, front general as well as particular motives, which it is unnecessary to slate, because sufficiently obvious. Since that time my progress has been interrupted, and at last suspended for many months by misfortunes and ill health; the former of which, though to myself an impressive lesson of the bad principles of men in society, is too trite an instance of the evils produced by that cause, to constitute any part of the present discourse. Neither of these can be urged in extenuation of the imperfections of the following work; but they are conclusive to justify the rectitude of the author in the mind of such, if any there be, as may suppose him to possess the power or the ability to have done better.'

To vindicate himself from the charge of unfair and even immoral conduct, in bringing into the market a work of the same kind as Mr. Keir's, while the latter was in progress, Mr. N. observes, that 'his dictionary is comprehended within limits so much less extensive, than those apparently exhibited in the first part of Mr. Keir's work, that the departments intended to be occupied by each, must certainly be very distinct. I shall therefore dismiss this consideration with the sincere wish, that the world may soon be benefited by the farther labours of this author in his great undertaking.'

Mr. N. tells us, he has admitted the antiphlogistic doctrine, but with doubts in many parts and considerable limitations. He has not adopted the new nomenclature, but yet he acknowledges, that 'it appears to be more perfect than any other which has been offered, but he did not think himself at liberty to anticipate the public choice, by using it in an elementary work.' It may be useful to notice, that at this time scarcely a chemical tract appears, in which the new principles are adopted, without at the same time being accompanied by the new terms.

There are in this dictionary twenty-three tables, and it will be proper to mention the titles of them, as they are an important part of the work.

1. Simple, elective, attractions, from Bergmann, in six tables.
2. Numerical expressions of affinity, by Morveau.
3. Schemes of compound elective attraction, exhibited by position in the humid and dry way; being fifty-two instances, translated, with some alterations, from the symbols of Bergmann.
4. Weights of different countries compared with those of France and England, by Tillet.
5. Specific gravities of bodies, and weight of a cubic inch of each in parts of a pound avoirdupoise.
6. Comparative heats of different bodies.

7. Specific gravities, corresponding with the degrees of Beaume's hydrometer.
8. Nomenclature of the french chemists.
9. Quantity of essential oil afforded by different vegetables.
10. Alkaline products from vegetables by incineration.
11. Quantities of precipitate afforded by the several metals to the different alkalis.
12. Quantities of the oxygenous principle required to render 100 grains of each of the metals soluble.
13. Elevated temperatures, and their effects, expressed in degrees of the thermometers of Wedgwood and Fahrenheit.
14. Strength and specific gravity of ardent spirit, according to Bories.
15. Specific gravities of distilled water, for every five degrees, between 30 degrees and 100 degrees, by Mr. Gilpin.
16. Specific gravities of ardent spirit, for every five degrees of temperature, between 30 degrees and 100 degrees, and for all strength intermediate between pure spirit and water, by Mr. Gilpin.
17. Names and quantities of salts soluble in ardent spirit.
18. Materials and products of fermentation tabulated by Lavosier.
19. Quantities of several salts soluble in water.
20. Binary combinations of principles not hitherto decomposed.
21. Compounds consisting in general of more than two principles.
22. Compounds of certain products of organization.
23. Table of the correspondence of the thermometers of Fahrenheit, Reaumur, and Celsius.

Mr. N., we think, should have inserted Mr. Kirwan's tables of affinity, in which the quantities of attraction are as the quantity of basis which can unite to a given quantity of menstruum, in the case of certain acids and alkaline bases.

A dictionary is itself a collection of abridged accounts of the different articles, and therefore an analysis of the whole work cannot be expected in this place. We shall select a few parts from the whole, as we pass through the alphabet.

In the account of acids, some judicious observations are made upon their composition, and upon the whole Mr. N. adopts the new theory. We think he should have been more copious under this head. His enumeration is not correct; for he has set down the acid of tin, which was announced indeed by one chemist, seven or eight years ago, but was soon afterwards given up, and not been named since. The sulphureous, the phosphoreous, the nitric, the oxygenated-muriatic, the nitro-muriatic, the oxygenated sulphuric, and the acetic acids are all omitted in the list, but some of them are treated of in the course of the work. We think Mr. N. has embarrassed his accounts by the notice of certain theories and hypotheses of modern chemists, which are not all supported by facts; such for instance is the hypothesis mentioned, that phlogisticated air (azotic air) is a modification of inflammable air, which is sup-

supposed to be combined with a due proportion of vital air, while with a still larger proportion of vital air the common air of the atmosphere is formed, and with still greater successive additions of vital air, there are formed nitrous air, aeriform nitrous acid, the fuming nitrous acid, and the pale nitrous acid.

The objection is stated, but without also stating the answer, that nitrous acid does not consist of vital air and phlogisticated air, because the production of nitrous acid is not greater when the proportion of phlogisticated air is increased. It should have been added, that the nitrous acid was not increased, because the proportion of oxygen was thereby diminished, and consequently there was less chance of there being redundant vital air over the quantity required to saturate the inflammable air, without which redundancy no nitrous acid could be composed.

The article *alkaline air* is extremely well drawn out; we see nothing omitted of consequence, except the experiments of Wolfe, who decompounded volatile alkali, by distilling sal ammoniac with nitrous acid. The production of volatile alkali should also have been mentioned in making the clystus of nitre. It appears, according to Mr. Berthollet's experiments, that volatile alkali is compounded of $2 \frac{1}{2}$ parts of inflammable air, and $1 \frac{1}{2}$ parts of phlogisticated air by measure, or of 29 parts of inflammable air, and 121 parts of phlogisticated air, by weight.

On the subject of *hepatic air* [sulphurized hydrogen gas] the author does not seem to allow, that it has ever been decompounded and resolved into sulphur and inflammable air, and therefore it may be merely sulphur preserved in an aerial form by the matter of heat. We know, however, that phosphorized hydrogen gas (phosphoric inflammable air), by merely standing over water, deposits its phosphorus, and the residue is inflammable air; and we have no doubt from analogy, that hepatic air is composed of sulphur and inflammable air. We believe, that, by passing the electric spark through a mixture of vital air and hepatic air, water will be produced, and either sulphur or sulphureous acid be deposited.

The article *inflammable air* contains a great deal of valuable matter. It appears to be a rule, says the author, that water should be present in every case wherein inflammable air is produced. This is true in general, but we think the instance of animal matter dried till it can be pulverized, and affording in close vessels with fire inflammable air, is an exception. Mr. N. should have stated, that Mr. Kirwan has now relinquished his doctrine of this air being pure phlogiston; but as it is here represented, one would suppose that most respectable philosopher still maintained, that it was aeriform phlogiston.

To the article *phlogisticated air* no objection can be made, except that among the sources should have been mentioned, as affording it in a very pure state, mineral water, such as those of Bath and Buxton, and also caverns of the earth.

The article *attraction* is more copious than heretofore in any dictionary, and contains a great deal of new and instructive matter. It is enriched by above sixty diagrams of single and double

elective attractions, after the manner of *Bergmann*, with the numerical attractive powers of *Morveau*. The alteration in the diagrams, to show the operation of affinities according to both the new and old theory in the same cases, are well imagined, and elucidate the subject most clearly.

The title *balance* is explained in a manner, that shows the author to understand and judge better of the subject of this instrument than any former person. He describes the mode and the best principles for constructing balances; he gives a history, or more properly an enumeration, of the best balances which he has seen or heard of, in the possession of different persons, or societies; and he annexes a table of the correspondence of weights of different countries.

Bell metal. Here is a mistake, for it is asserted, that a *small proportion* (it should be a *large proportion*) of tin renders copper quite brittle.

Bleaching. Here, beside describing the common methods of bleaching, we have a very full account of the process of bleaching, by means of oxygenated muriatic acid, which must be very interesting to manufacturers.

Gastric juice. The account of this substance is very deficient, particularly from the total omission of Mr. Hunter's experiments.

Glass. This important article is very superficially treated of. It merited several more pages of discussion.

Hair. This substance does not appear to have been fully examined, otherwise, we have no doubt, other things would have been found on solution in nitrous acid, beside acid of sugar. The author of the dictionary, however, was not bound to make discoveries, and it is but just to say, that we believe a good analysis has not yet been made public.

Heat. This important and difficult subject is handled in a remarkably perspicuous manner, and shows how well Mr. N. understands it. He has set forth the doctrines of Black, Lavoisier, Crawford, Scheele, Pictet, &c. in a concise yet clear way. We wish he had dwelt more fully on this subject, and furnished for the student more illustrations from observation and experiment. He thinks the notion of heat or caloric being matter consists better with the many facts than the notion of it's being motion.

Honey. A more accurate and better account might have been given of honey, by the author's availing himself of later inquiries.

Indigo. The manufacturer and artist will find much useful matter under this title, principally extracted from *Bergmann*, *Haussman*, *Quatremere*, and *Berthollet*.

Jalap. This article should not have been inserted, for the matter respecting it is not relative, except a few facts, which of course would be related in other places, and the same observation applies to the next article :

Japan Earth.

Light. This subject is perspicuously handled, but much more matter would have been inserted, if the author had availed himself of the observations of *Boerhaave*, *Wedgwood*, *count Rumford*, *Scheele*,

Scheele, and others. He inclines to the opinion, that light is a distinct species of matter from the matter of heat.

Lime. Mr. N. very satisfactorily explains the solidity of it, and resistance to flaking, from the siliceous earth in the lime-stone, which is apt to vitrify.

Livers of sulphur. This article is by no means treated as it deserves. Many important properties of these combinations are omitted, and not a word is said of the volatile alkaline livers of sulphur.

Madder. Under this head every thing is inserted which can reasonably be expected by the philosopher and manufacturer.

Ores of gold. Under this title a very excellent account is given of the new process of amalgamation, invented by baron Born, which is very valuable, curious, and not commonly known; we shall therefore give a copious extract in this place. ‘The amalgamation of gold and silver ores requires the distinct operations of *Stamping*, *grinding*, and *sifting*; *calcination* and *repeated grinding* and *sifting*; *trituration*; *washing of the residuum*; *eliquation of the amalgama*; *heating of the same*; *distillation of the quicksilver* *pretted from the amalgama*; *management, use, and refining*, of such *residua* as still appear to contain some of the nobler metals.’

1. *Stamping, grinding, and sifting*, increase the surfaces, and thereby the ores mix and calcine better with common salt; otherwise the fire and air could not easily change the sulphur of the ore into sulphuric acid, which is necessary to decompose the common salt, and thereby set at liberty the marine acid: which attacks, dissolves, and unites with the earthy matter, and also with the imperfect metals of the ores, by which means the particles of gold and silver are freed from their disguise, and laid open to, and fitted for combination with the quicksilver.

2. *Calcination.* Sulphur can be expelled from ores in open fire and in closed vessels, but imperfectly, unless some proper substance be added. In some cases corrosive sublimate is added, the concentrated marine acid of which unites to the metallic, semi-metallic, and soluble earthy particles, which pass into the receiver, with the arsenic and antimonial calx, in the form of butter, and the disengaged quicksilver sublimates with the disengaged sulphur, in the form of cinnabar. If there be sulphur enough, or even a superabundance of it, calcination will produce this desirable effect, without any other addition; but as it is safer to depend on the marine rather than the vitriolic acid, common salt is generally added. Common salt, without decomposition by vitriolic acid, promotes the calcination of auriferous or silvery reguline mixtures of base metals and semi-metals, although no sulphur be present; for the common salt is decomposed by fire, and the attraction of the metals for the marine acid, which unites to all the metals, except gold and silver; these last being left bare and undisguised, quicklime is sometimes added to prevent the sublimation of metallic matter, and hinder the black copper ores especially, from turning clammy.

3. *Trituration, boiling, and amalgamation of the calcined matter.* The ores being duly pulverised and calcined, the success of trituration and amalgamation depends principally on the proper proportions

portions of quicksilver and water which are added to the stuff. The quantity of quicksilver depends on the weight and bulk of the calcined matter. An excess in quicksilver is never hurtful, and a scanty proportion is attended with losses. It may be taken in the proportion of one to two, that is, 1 cwt. of quicksilver to 2 cwt. of stuff. In this proportion it does not increase the cost of washing and pressing, or is any loss of quicksilver incurred: the full produce of noble metal is secured, and the residuum is left poorer. No boiling heat is required. A heat of 50° or 60° is sufficient.

4. *Washing of the triturated residuum.* The object of the trituration, was to unite the gold and silver particles of the calcined stuff, into an amalgama with quicksilver: the object of this washing is the separation of this rich amalgama from the residuum. This washing is performed in a large tub, of a conical form, with a rake within it, contrived so as to be thrown into a rotatory motion by a water wheel, or by hands; with side cocks for drawing off the water; and with a bottom cock for tapping off the amalgama or quicksilver.

The particles of quicksilver and amalgama, kept floating in the whole liquid mass, by the continual rotation of the rake, sink by their gravity, and collect in the concave bottom of the tub, above the cock; but the remaining stuff or ore, and stony matter, being much lighter, is kept floating. When the whole has been sufficiently stirred about in this manner with the water, the bottom cock of the washing-tub is opened, and the quicksilver and amalgama are thereby let out; after which one or more of the side cocks (which are fixed at different heights) is opened to let out the thin liquid stuff. In a note we are told, that cold amalgamation has been successfully introduced into Bohemia, in place of this warm amalgamation in copper boilers.

5. *Eliguation of the quicksilver and amalgama.* The quicksilver, triturated with rich stuffs, is strained through a kind of filtrum, for the purpose of bringing the gold and silver particles into a smaller compass, and of separating them from the excess of quicksilver; although the whole can never be separated but by fire. This is done by means of a box, on the circular opening of which lies an iron ring, to which is fixed a bag of linen damask. The quicksilver (its surface having been previously cleansed with a sponge from any muddy water or stuff that might adhere to it) is poured in small quantities into this bag by one person, whilst another presses it with his hands, until the ball of amalgama, collecting and forming apace, does no longer yield any quicksilver. When the ball becomes too big for pressure with two hands, it is taken out, and another is formed in the same manner, until all the quicksilver is gone through the bag. The balls of amalgama are put into a wooden box. The quicksilver which has been strained through the bag (and which always contains from twenty to thirty pennyweights of gold and silver per cwt.) is collected in a reservoir under the box, and serves again for trituration with fresh quantities of ore.

6. *Heat.*

6. *Heating and sublimation, or distillation of the amalgama.* The amalgama balls obtained by pressing or elutiating the quicksilver, consist of one part of silver, and four, five, or six parts of quicksilver. This is expelled from them by fire in close vessels. It is a distillation *per descensum*, performed in large cast-iron pots, put over each other. The fire is kept up for five or six hours. The heat acting through the pots on the amalgama, volatilizes the quicksilver, which rising in the form of vapour, and finding no passage in the inverted upper pot, is forced down into the lower one, and collects there by the way of distillation, being condensed and precipitated by the coolness that is constantly kept up by cold water, to the outside of the lower pot or receiver.

When no copper has been revived, and the amalgama has been perfectly treated, all the quicksilver is recovered without loss, and the balls are white like silver, and mossy on their surfaces. If coppery, they have a reddish cast; and are brownish, if the copper has undergone a superficial calcination. If leady, which is seldom the case, they shew a dark, pearl gray colour.

The amalgams, according to their coppery, or leady appearance, or to their purity, are either refined by cupellation, or simply melted down and run into ingots. When containing no gold, they may be delivered to the mint without further fusion or cupellation, notwithstanding their copper alloy; but if auriferous and coppery, then they must be refined, or put to cupellation, that the copper may be destroyed, and the auriferous silver be brought to the standard of 15 loth 15 grains *per marc*, in which it is received at the mint.

Distillation of the quicksilver, separated from the amalgam by heat or pressure.

The quicksilver, separated by heat from the amalgam, contains some of the noble metals which passed with it through the pressing bag. This generally amounts to 3—4, or one ounce *per cwt.* But this quicksilver being constantly in hand, and always serving in the subsequent triturations, its contents of gold and silver need only to be ascertained once at the annual balance of the accounts. This may be done in small assays, by distilling the quicksilver with granulated lead in glass retorts; but the operation succeeds best in tubulated iron retorts, with cast-iron receivers filled with water, and luted to the necks of the retorts. Each of these is sunk half into the furnace with its neck much inclined into the receivers. They are filled with two cwt. of quicksilver, to which is added 1—2, or one pound of granulated lead. The tubulated opening of the retort, and the neck of the receiver, must be carefully luted with refractory clay. The fire should be brisk, and the whole body of the retort be covered with the burning fuel. The quicksilver rises up in the form of vapour, and passes over into the receiver, where it is condensed, collected into drops, and falls to the bottom of the water. All the auriferous silver remains behind united with the lead, which if it should stick to the bottom of the retort, may be melted in it by a coal fire, and poured out into an ingot to be afterwards put to the test or cupellation.

7. *Further treatment and use of the triturated residua which have gone through the process of amalgamation.* The residua commonly

contain some gold and silver, more or less, according as they were well or badly pulverised, calcined, sifted, triturated, and washed. If the residuum should contain more than one ounce per cwt., and raw uncalcined particles appear in the same, it will be adviseable to calcine it once more with an addition of four *per cent.* of salt, and to let it undergo a second amalgamation. If it should be of an equal size, and perfectly calcined, it should be mixed up with new stuff, or triturated once more alone.

If, on the contrary, the residuum is silvery, in consequence of the imperfect washing and separation of the quicksilver and amalgam, it must be washed over again, more abundantly diluted with water. The lixivia containing copper are precipitated by iron. The editors of the Chemical Journal [Crell's] add the following remarks, in a note, on the cold amalgamation :

‘ Considering the complex apparatus for the warm amalgamation, the wear and loss of the copper boilers, the unequal produce and the expence of firing (all which are now avoided) the cold amalgamation is, as Mr. Raspe observes, a noble improvement of the process. It was what baron Born always aimed at, though his attempts were unsuccessful. Mr. Gellert, at Freyberg, first succeeded in it, using wooden cylindrical churning with perpendicular pistons, laid over with copper sheeting, which, by a quick motion up and down, produce a stronger trituration than the rotary horizontal motion of barrels, and at the same time prevent the possibility of producing sublimate, or mercurius dulcis, by the excess of marine acid acting upon the quicksilver, to which that acid has less affinity than to copper. His first experiment was attended with uncommon success : for by cold churning, he extracted the silver from pulverised ore, which contains but three ounces and a quarter per quintal, in the course of sixteen hours, so compleatly, that the leavings contained but two dwts. (The operation may even be finished in ten hours, which otherwise required twenty-four). Upon these principles the churning apparatus, in wooden cylinders, has been adopted in Bohemia, with a perforated cast iron piston, which by a crank motion moves quickly up and down. Though the whole is put in cold, yet, at the end of the operation, it heats in consequence of the quick trituration and motion of the pistons.

‘ At Freyberg this cold amalgamation is performed in a mill, which turns eight large barrels, each holding $10\frac{1}{2}$ quintals of ore. The ores are dressed to contain four ounces per quintal, mixed with 10 *per cent.* of salt, and calcined and sifted in baron Born's manner. When put into the barrels, one fourth *per cent.* of quick-lime, and 34 lbs. of water are added, and turned briskly two hours, 36 turns per minute. The lime absorbs the excess of acids. To counteract the decomposition of metallic vitriols, and the precipitation of silver particles (which an excess of lime might occasion), after two hours turning, two *per cent.* of thin rolled iron chips, two inches square, are thrown into the barrels, and turned with the same two hours. Then the quicksilver, half a quintal to one quintal of ore, is added, together with an additional four *per cent.* of iron chips, previously coated with a little cop-

per,

per, by immersion in copper water, in order to prevent the dispersion of the quicksilver, and to catch and attract its smallest particles. After these last coppery iron chips and the quicksilver have been added, the barrels are turned slower, at the rate of 20 or 25 turns per minute. After 12 hours turning, all the silver is extracted except $1\frac{1}{4}$ dwt. per quintal, which cannot be further extracted by amalgamation.'

Ores of silver. The accounts of these articles are very instructive, but not so compleat as they might have been rendered. The red silver ore (rothgüldenertz) is stated to contain arsenic, as in other books, but Mr. Klaproth has shown, that arsenic is not the mineralising substance of this ore.

The account of the cornish tin ores is taken from Klaproth.

Among the ores of zinc, the 2d variety is called *Tutenago*, which is ' calx of zinc, united with a notable proportion of iron. Engestrom, in the memoirs of Stockholm, for the year 1775, has given us an analysis of an ore of this sort from China; it was of a white colour, interspersed with red streaks of calx of iron, and so brittle as to be easily broken betwixt the fingers. It contained from 60 to 90 per cent of zinc; the remainder was iron, and a small proportion of argill. Bindheim also discovered this variety in Germany, and found it to consist of zinc, a little iron, and filex.'

Peat. The author should have stated the observations to prove, that this is a peculiar species of vegetable.

Peruvian Bark. The author has not availed himself of the elaborate analysis of this substance published in the *Annales de Chimie*.

Phlogiston. As in several parts of this work it did not appear, that the author was satisfied with the new principles of chemistry, we expected to find in this place the defence of the old doctrine; but on the contrary, we here find a clear and able exposition of the main parts of the new theory, with a fair statement of the deficiencies, hypotheses, and errors of the phlogistic doctrine. The difference between the substance called phlogiston by Stahl, and that other different substance supposed to be the cause of the phenomena imputed to it by modern chemists, is very properly stated. The former is what is also called fixed or latent fire, and the latter is what is called inflammable air.

Phosphorus. We must commend the author particularly for the great pains he has bestowed on this article, which is at once very useful and entertaining. The history of the discovery of phosphorus is well collected, and the method of making phosphoric matches and phosphoric bottles is described.

Platina. The author has failed in his account of this interesting metal. We think he has not availed himself of the excellent history of it, published in the *Annales de Chimie*. The two methods of obtaining the metal in a malleable state, namely, by arsenic, and precipitation from nitro-muriatic acid by sal ammoniac, are very imperfectly and even inaccurately described.

Porcelain. In this article, we find a copious and very interesting

esting history, superior to any hitherto introduced into any dictionary, and we make the same remark on the article

Pottery.

Vegetable kingdom. Mr. N. has shown much judgment and knowledge in the discussion of this article, although we do not agree with him, that water is the only aliment which roots draw from the earth. He allows, however, that water which is impregnated with the remains of animals and vegetables is more favourable to the developement of vegetables than pure water.

We do not think the author is justifiable in concluding from the experiments of Priestley, Ingenhouz, and Senebier, that plants absorb the azotic part of the atmosphere, and that this principle appears to be the cause of the fertility which arises from the use of putrefying matters in the form of manure: or is it reasonable to conclude, that fixed air is absorbed by vegetables, when its quantity is small.

Appendix. Here we have the tables of chemical compounds collected, the author says with considerable industry. If the ingredients could have been ascertained to the greatest accuracy of weight, measure, and purity, there could be no doubt of the great utility of such tables. At present they are in a very imperfect state; nevertheless, much advantage may be derived from these deficient tables, as thereby the practical chemist may extract such documents, as enable him to foretel nearly what will happen in any projected experiment. These tables are constructed in the usual manner, namely, the substances in the horizontal compartments are supposed to be united with the substances at the heads of the columns, and compound the substances in the squares common to both.

The first table contains the binary compounds of such things as have not been decomposed; such as vital air, and bases which produce acids; azotic air and inflammable air which produce volatile alkali; a mark of interrogation is put after water, as if Mr. N. doubted whether it were composed of vital and inflammable air.

The second table contains compounds, consisting in general of more than two ingredients, such as the metallic, earthy, and neutral double salts. Very properly the author has set down the specific gravities, the aqueous and spirituous solution, the proportions of the ingredients of many of the compounds, and also some of their characteristic properties.

The table of the correspondence of the thermometers of Fahrenheit, Reaumur, and Celsius, will be found very useful.

Some *additions* are subjoined, which contain accounts of substances which the author had omitted, or of which fuller accounts have been given since the articles in the dictionary itself were written, namely, charcoal, gums, nitre, spermaceti, and pyrotartareous acid.

The index of names will be found useful, as it will serve to recall to the memory of persons already conversant with chemistry many of the discoveries and improvements made at different times.

The

The index of things is not very copious. The plates are far short of the necessary representations of the chemical apparatus, and some parts of it here represented by the plates are ill contrived, and we believe not used. Some of the utensils are not justly figured. The retorts in particular are of almost the worst possible shape. The very useful apparatus of Woulfe for distillation, and that for compounding water by the combustion of hydrogen in oxygen gaz, are not here figured.

Although we have thought it our duty to notice a few apparent defects of the present work, we trust it will also appear, that we consider it to be a very meritorious publication. Indeed we cannot hesitate to consider it as one of the most useful collections of facts in the chemical department; but in such a work as this, perhaps no one labourer can acquit himself so as to produce a dictionary without many deficiencies and even errors. Mr. N. is himself sensible, that this remark is just, and he assigns the reason, namely, that there must be a limit to the labour of such an undertaking, and that will perhaps always exclude much useful matter. It is however mere justice to allow, that a more industrious and judicious writer than Mr. N., cannot easily be found.

T. T.

MEDICINE.

ART. VI. *Considerations on the Medicinal Use, and on the Production of Factitious Airs.*—Part I. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. Part II. By James Watt, Engineer. Second Edition. To which are added Communications from Doctors Carmichael, Darwin, Ewart, Ferriar, Garnet, Johnstone, Pearson, Thornton, and Trotter; from Mr. Atwood, Mr. Barr, Surgeon to the Birmingham Dispensary, Mr. Walter William Capper, Mr. Gimbernat, Surgeon to the King of Spain, Mr. Sandford, Surgeon to the Worcester Infirmary, and others. Bristol, Bulgin and Rosser; London, Johnson. 8vo. 210 pages. 5 plates. Price 3s. 6d. sewed. 1795.

The ingenuity and accuracy of Dr. B. in conducting experimental inquiries are well known; and it is fortunate for pneumatic medicine, that the experiments which are in a great measure to establish its utility in the cure of diseases have been undertaken by a physician of such acuteness and indefatigable perseverance. After making a variety of observations, in the prefatory part of the pamphlet, on the nature and tendency of different obstacles which may be opposed to the progress of this new department of medicine, the author gives a detail of experiments made on different animals, with a view of ascertaining a variety of facts respecting the use of various kinds of air. These trials furnish the following reflections:

P. 38. ‘ The attentive reader must have seen, even in the result of these simple extemporaneous experiments, indubitable proofs of the power of factitious airs variously to affect the living frame. It appears that oxygene air, when inspired pure, or nearly so, increases the motions so as to produce dangerous or mortal inflammation; that by reddening the blood

blood, it brightens the colour of the solid parts; even that of the liver, which anatomy shows to be the least likely of all the solids to be affected by any change of the arterial blood; that it renders animals less capable of being drowned or destroyed by cold; that it is expended in muscular motion, since animals that have exerted themselves violently, immediately before confinement in a given quantity of atmospheric air, or during confinement, soonest exhaust it of oxygene; and that, when it is blown into dogs, in the manner veal is blown up by butchers, it produces a remarkable degree of vivacity. These facts, compared with some of the observations, which will be given in the next paragraph, will prove of use in directing us how to apply this air properly as a remedy; especially as they will appear to have been confirmed since their first publication by observations on the sick.

Between unrespirable airs, there seems a remarkable difference in their power to produce insensibility and death. Hydrogene appears the least noxious, both when inspired alone, or mixed with atmospheric air. Azote probably differs little from hydrogene. Hydrocarbonate seems extremely deleterious; Mr. Watt gives evidence of this in the human species. I can add a similar observation. A person in confirmed consumption, breathed a quantity of hydrocarbonate, mixed with four times its bulk of atmospheric air: he became very sick, or rather vertiginous; the pulse was much quickened, and the extremities became very cold. The patient finding an abatement of pain in his side, and of dyspnoea, returned for another dose. The operator, a chemist of great skill, thinking the former dose too strong, mixed 50 c. inches of hydrocarbonate with 600 of atmospheric air. This was respired without any sensible effect. In a quarter of an hour, 100 c. i. of hydrocarbonate were mixed with 600 of atmospheric air. The patient breathed at twice about two-thirds of this mixture, when he was desired to desist. Soon afterwards he became vertiginous, and nearly insensible, his pulse at one period being nearly imperceptible; the sphincter of the bladder was relaxed; after his recovery, he was again very cold—"intensely cold to his own feelings," was his expression—as well as to the touch. After getting into his carriage, he fainted; and his pulse for several hours continued quicker and weaker than before. The operator having observed, that when much water is added to red-hot charcoal, carbonic acid air is copiously produced, in the preparation of this last portion of air, had added so little water, that no superfluous steam at all came over; hence it was as pure as can be made: being also newly prepared, it retained all the charcoal it had carried up; of which it is well known to deposit part on standing. This might lead to conjecture, that the greater deleterious power of heavy inflammable air from water and hot charcoal (hydrocarbonate) compared with that of light inflammable air, depends on the facility of its combination, or at least of the charcoal it contains with the oxygene of the blood; in consequence of which, it speedily disarms the system of its moving principle. This opinion seems countenanced by the effect of nitrous air, which more quickly destroys life than any of those above mentioned, and which is well known very readily to combine with oxygene. Death, in this case, might be more instantaneous, from the instantaneous production of an highly corrosive acid (nitrous acid) and its application to the whole surface of the lungs. But for the

the rapid effect of carbonic acid air, and the appearances in x1, I can assign no plausible reason; nor does the above hypothesis suit the facts in x1; which, with those in x, refute those eminent philosophers, who have of late supposed that water and several bland unrespirable airs occasion death, simply by exclusion of the oxygene of the atmosphere. Their action is certainly unequal; and, I presume, recovery from asphyxia in water (when but little goes down the wind-pipe), hydrogene air, azote, or from strangulation (where no material organic injury is produced), will be much more easy than from asphyxia, occasioned by other unrespirable mediums.

‘ Experiments to discover the effects of the long continued action of aeriform substances, would be much more curious than such as I have made. They would thus, in all probability, more deeply and permanently affect the living system. If, for instance, an animal were kept in an atmosphere containing $\frac{20}{700}$ $\frac{22}{700}$ of oxygene, or still less, it would, perhaps, be affected with the sea-scurvy. The muscular fibres, at least, and the solids in general would, in all probability, be found weak, tender, or easy to be torn. Again, if three equal growing animals were kept, one in the atmosphere, the other in air of an higher, the third of a lower, standard, and in all other respects treated alike; some considerable difference would, perhaps, be observed in their growth and vigour.—By frequent immersion in water, the association between the movements of the heart and lungs might, perhaps, be dissolved; and an animal be inured to live commodiously for any time under water. If some plan, similar to that which I have ventured to propose, should be executed, such processes of investigation ought to be carried on in the institution.’

The remarks on the preparation of atmospheres of different standards, and on the method of procuring elastic fluids, were certainly required in order to put these matters in a point of view sufficiently clear for those who have not been much employed in managing matters of this kind.

The clinical evidence which Dr. B. has brought forward, in the subsequent part of this pamphlet, is highly respectable, and certainly favourable to the cause of pneumatic medicine. We should have been glad to have inserted a case or two here, if their length would have admitted.

From different trials with hydrocarbonate, the author concludes, (p. 154) that ‘ Its effect, so far as colour is concerned, is not destroyed in passing through the small arteries; hence the alteration is seen in the veins, and by consequence in the solids, particularly the liver. This colouring principle (supposing something to be imparted to the blood) differs therefore in its affinity to the animal fibre from oxygene, if oxygene be distributed by the arteries.—Hydrocarbonate kept in contact with living blood appears, from its becoming more explosive, to approach to the nature of hydrogene; whence its bulk should be expected to increase instead of diminishing; but this is a point to be determined by nicer instruments than I have it in my power to employ at present. The principle which one should suspect from analogy, that hydrocarbonate communicates to the blood, is charcoal, (or carbone, which I consider as a compound of hydrogene and azote) or some substance nearly allied to it. It might therefore be tried whether charcoal in any form will brighten the blood.

‘ A florid

• A florid complexion may then, it seems, as far as it is connected with the mere substance of the blood, depend equally on arterial blood highly oxygenated, or venous blood brightened, as by the application of hydrocarbonate. It may at present be difficult to distinguish the two cases. The blood is frequently florid, as it flows from a vein. But in many of these instances, arterial blood only escapes the change it commonly undergoes in its progress through the small blood-vessels. Thus, when Mr. Hunter says, “ I bled a lady whose blood at first was of a dark colour; but she fainted, and while she continued in the fit, the colour of the blood that came from the vein was of a fine scarlet;” we may suppose the action of the small arteries to have been suspended, and the oxygene not to have been communicated to the solids; the same when an animal is bleeding to death. Mr. Hewson observes that the blood from faint animals is brighter, and coagulates more speedily; which may depend on its containing more oxygene. Yet if the rapid coagulation in my experiments was occasioned by oxygene actually present in the venous blood, it was in such quantity as not to brighten the colour.

• It might be thought that the oxygene of the blood, forming carbonic acid with hydrocarbonate, gives redness; but the application of carbonic acid, both to the blood and to the lungs, discountenances this idea. These experiments should be further prosecuted with arterial blood. Meanwhile, as it is certain that the blood and the solids may acquire a bright red colour from causes totally distinct from the presence of oxygene, my conjectures concerning the condition of the system in some cases of consumption lose their support.—But although I cannot now believe that the permanent redness of the fauces in some consumptive patients, and other analogous appearances, indicate hyperoxygination, I still think that excess of this principle does occasion disease. But besides colour, I should require some of the symptoms occasioned by the respiration of too much oxygene to appear, before I admitted this cause. Dr. Garnet has, I think, fixed upon instances of this nature; and perhaps the frequent pleurisies in the Castiles depend on the dryness of the atmosphere; a quality which, if it arise from the want of water, and not its combination, implies the presence of more oxygene in a given bulk of air.'

The second part of this very interesting pamphlet contains a full description of a pneumatic apparatus, with necessary directions for procuring factitious airs. These have been drawn up with great care and attention by Mr. W., who observes, (p. 1.) that ‘ Since the first publication of this description, experience has suggested some improvements in the mode of constructing and of using the apparatus, which in the present state of pneumatic medicine, it would be improper to delay communicating to the public. Every hint, however trifling in itself, now attention is awake, may lead to useful discoveries.

• The author has also availed himself of this opportunity to methodize and elucidate his description in a manner which the former hasty publication would not admit of. One of the original plates has been rejected, and another, representing the improved use of the fire-tubes, has been inserted in its place. Conceiving the apparatus may fall into the hands of persons who have not been accustomed to chemical experiments, clearness has been aimed at, even at the hazard of prolixity. Though the author wishes to shun the imputation of neologism, yet to avoid

avoid circumlocutions, he has found himself obliged to form some new words, such as the *martial*, *zincic*, and *carbonic inflammable airs*, which latter he has also called *hydro carbonate*.—He has indifferently made use of the terms of the old and new chemical nomenclature, wishing merely to be understood, and not intending to enter into discussions upon theories in a treatise, the objects of which are facts.'

Plates of the different apparatus are introduced at the end of the pamphlet.

ART. VII. *Medical Essays and Observations, with Disquisitions relating to the Nervous System.* By James Johnstone, M. D. Physician in Worcester. *And, an Essay on Mineral Poisons,* by John Johnstone, M. B. Physician in Birmingham. 8vo. 482 pages. Price 7s. 6d. in boards. Evesham, Agg; London, Longman. 1795.

THERE is probably no species of writing which has contributed more to improve and enlarge the boundaries of medical science than that of essays. It is, perhaps, the easy and expeditious mode of communicating knowledge which this kind of writing affords, that has tended to render the diffusion of medical opinions and doctrines more general in this, than in many other countries.

Entertaining this opinion, therefore, of the general importance of detached essays, in disseminating medical information, we cannot take up the papers of the experienced physician, whose labours are here collected into a volume, without the expectation of receiving considerable pleasure and instruction from the observations and reflections which they contain.

It is necessary, however, to observe, before we proceed to the papers, that the first part of the work contains various tracts by Dr. J. of Worcester, some of which appeared before the commencement of our journal, and others have been inserted in different periodical publications, which renders our noticing them here unnecessary. There are, however, a few which have not been published before. The second part is by his son, an ingenious young physician at Birmingham. Of the papers of the first part, which have not been already before the public, that which contains the author's physiological and pathological observations on the functions of the visceral nerves and remarks on the action of opium and other vegetable poisons, seems to be the most important. In this essay, the principal aim of the writer is evidently an illustration of his observations on the ganglions of the nerves, and their use in the vital and other involuntary motions of animals. In his remarks on the action of opium it may be necessary to be more particular, as we find the doctor differing in opinion with the generality of writers on this subject, without adducing proofs that can be considered in any degree satisfactory, in support of his conclusion.

After taking notice of the experiments of Alston, Haller, Whytt, Monro, and Fontana, the author recites some of his own, from which it is obvious, that the excitability of the part to which the opium was applied was immediately exhausted by the stimulating action of that drug.

He then inquires whether it be *absolutely a stimulant, or potentially a sedative medicine*, or as some think both a stimulant and sedative. On this subject take the reasoning of the author, in his own words.

P. 171. ' I believe it will not be denied, that large and *poisonous doses of opium are fatal by directly extinguishing those vital powers in the nervous system, by which they are the instruments of sensation, and of every action in the animal œconomy.*

' The lesser doses of opium act, in proportion to the quantity, in a similar manner to the greater doses, on the nervous system; and while the former extinguish life, the latter assuage pain, and moderate excessive and unnatural spasmodic motions, both as palliatives and remedies: and, when judiciously applied, with very salutary consequences.

' Small doses lull and benumb sensation, and suspend its exercise; and abate both the power and exercise of motion: this suspense contributes to the restoration of the nervous power, perhaps in the manner it is renewed in sleep: so that animal invigoration in this case, is not roused or exhausted by stimuli, but, by a remission of action; the proper benefit and effect of this sedative remedy, when applied with judgment.—Like the power ascribed to the rod of Mercury, in the *Æneid.*

— — — — —
hac animas ille evocat orco
Pallentes, alias sub tristia Tartara mittit;
Dat somnos adimitque, et lumina morte resignat.

' Thus opium may produce effects very different and opposite, according to the dose, and the disease and constitution of the patient. When given seasonably, and with discernment, the ease it gives is a prelude to the preservation of life, and the restoration of health: in rash, in unexperienced and unskillful hands, it is often a speedy passport to the grave.'

He then says, that, from what has been observed, p. 172, ' It appears that opium acts as a potential *sedative*, and *only as a sedative*.

' The stimulating matter contained in a grain or two of opium is very inconsiderable, compared to the stimulating power in pepper, and a hundred other simples, which have no such effects on animals as opium: so that the action of opium cannot be similar, or attributed to stimulus.

' If at any time it appears to have different powers, they are *secondary effects*, such as are consequences merely of its primary proper *sedative power*, acting upon the living system in various conditions of health and disease.'

This medicine has also, according to the opinion of our author, been perniciously applied in fevers, and doctrines have been lately promulgated, which threaten a return of such abuses; he has therefore favoured the world with *reflections* on the use and operation of this remedy. They are these.

P. 173. ' Externally applied, except in wounds, its effects are seldom very conspicuous. In glysters, its operation is hardly less powerful than in the stomach. When received into the stomach, its operation is powerful and extensive, in consequence of the sensibility

bility and connection the nerves of that organ have with the brain and heart, and every part of the body.

‘ By rendering us less sensible to the stimulus of ordinary sensation, and of pain, the procuring sleep, is one of its earliest consequences: that is, a temporary suspension of the functions of sensation and voluntary motion, takes place. In the vital functions, the heart becomes less sensible to the stimulus of the blood: and its motions, and the pulsations of the arteries, with respiration, are rendered sensibly slower, and the pulses thereby fuller.

‘ Its powers, of lessening the irritability and activity of the alimentary canal, and, of diminishing and suspending every evacuation, that of sweating alone excepted, are well ascertained. As it is certain, an increased dose ends in the extinction of every animal function, it is evident, that the proper operation of opium, whether in small or greater doses, is uniformly sedative, and that by this power, health may be restored, and life extinguished.

‘ The resistance given by the vital parts, to whatever tends to their extinction, occasions secondary effects, which have been mistaken for the direct consequences of the primary powers of opium. This has occasioned an error, of practical importance, by which a stimulating, and direct strengthening power, has been attributed to opium, as well as its proper sedative power. The struggles of the vis-conservatrix naturæ, to resist powers, operating towards its extinction, and the convulsions of death itself, have been deemed evidences of a stimulating power in opium, and of vigour derived from it.

‘ But we maintain, that, opium, in some degree, constantly weakens and relaxes every animal function; that it benumbs sense, and makes us less apt for muscular exertion; and, that it never bestows strength, but when, by its sedative power, it suspends or cures diseases, in which spasms, pains, protracted vigilance, and excessive evacuation, weaken the system. Opium in this manner strengthens, when it puts an end to a nephritic fit, cures a cholic, moderates and checks any excessive discharge of blood, cures diarrhoea, or gives rest in the torture of rheumatic and gouty pains.

‘ That the convulsions, and other re-actions which appear in animals, arising from lesser doses of opium, and other sedative poisons, are not the effects of stimuli, appear from this: that large and increased doses of the same administered, instantly extinguish life, without struggle and resistance.

‘ Dr. Cullen allows, (Mat. Med.) that narcotics generally weaken the powers of vital motion; yet inconsistently asserts that opium, in its first operation, often irritates the sanguiferous system, and excites the force of circulation. The only colour for this assertion, seems to be the conflict which takes place, between the natural and morbid stimuli acting on irritable organs, and the sedative power of doses of opium, insufficient to quiet these irritations altogether. The fact is this, the forces of the heart are weakened, and the circulation of the blood are retarded, by the sedative power of opium, if the dose be sufficiently powerful. If small and inadequate, the effect may be imperceptible; but it would be absurd to alledge, such doses create powers, they are unable to suppress.

‘ It has been said the stimulant, as well as sedative power of opium, is manifested by some of its preparations, proving powerfully sudorific. Not to mention the powerful stimuli added to opium in *Theriaca* and *Dover’s powder*, and other compositions, sweating is generally caused by relaxation of the surface of the body: in this operation, opium brings on a state, in some respects, analogous to the sweating, which in relaxed constitutions takes place during sleep, the effect of debility, and, as in hectic diseases, of colligation.

‘ In a word, the operation of small and salutary doses of opium, is ever potentially sedative, and exactly similar to that by which, in poisonous doses, it is known to destroy irritability, and extinguish life.’

After this, we have the doctor’s *method* of administering this medicine, which is so very pernicious when given ‘ upon brunonian principles.’

P. 178. ‘ From the premature and injudicious administration of opium, necessary and salutary evacuation by stool is prevented: bilious and putrid faces, with putrid air, distend and inflate the intestines. The tongue becomes dry and foul; a kind of comatose state, a fatuous delirium, and immense debility, succeed, under which, the patient sooner or later sinks. Fevers not only end fatally in individual patients, but the contagion is kept up, and spreads in the circle, where they are thus treated: and, the recovery of such as emerge, is unusually slow, tedious, and uncertain.

‘ Nevertheless, opium may be of service in fevers of various kinds, in particular circumstances of irritation: but the occasion is best learnt by observation and experience.

‘ As I know that opiates suppress evacuations by stool, I seldom order any in the beginning of fever, unless to give quiet after the operation of an emetic, or to moderate evacuation by stool, when it is excessive, or arises from too much irritability.

‘ In a word, if any symptom in the acme of fever, or in its decline, requires a sedative medicine, I shall on such occasions, administer opium in cautious doses. If a stimulus is needed, or a strengthening medicine, properly so called, I shall not for that purpose administer opium.

‘ Wine, in such circumstances, is the best stimulant and cordial; and peruvian bark, with proper antiseptic aliment, the best restorer and supporter of strength.—I am not here writing a treatise on fevers, otherwise camphor, cantharides, and others, would not have been omitted.—The sedative power in wine, bears a very small proportion to its stimulating energy: and, like the stimulating matter and power in opium, is so inconsiderable, as scarcely to deserve consideration, and to be below estimation. The excitement of the languid powers of nature, and of the nerves in low fevers, by a discreet use of wine, makes it highly salutary, both as an antiseptic and stimulating medicine.

‘ It cannot, however, be forgot, that opium, is one of the great and important instruments of the healing art, relieves pain, and gives solace to the tortured body and mind. It gives more than relief in cholic, cholera, and in nephritic excruciating paroxysms:

it is useful in the small-pox, and some other eruptive fevers; it stops or suspends hemorrhages, gives ease in rheumatic, venereal, and many other painful diseases, which afflict mankind. — But the mischief of the alexipharmac treatment of fevers, in which compositions containing opium, indiscriminately used, were so injurious, that I thought every vestige of that method had for ever been exploded; and makes me fear and suspect, renewed calamity, from this restoration of a method, somewhat resembling it: for the mischiefs of that method, did not consist altogether in the foul air of a close hot room, and in a vast load of bed-cloaths; but, in the airy and promiscuous administration of compositions, in which opium was the predominant, and the most pernicious ingredient.

Is this reasoning? or is it not something like prejudice in favour of opinions formed at an early period of life? We recommend it to Dr. J. to consult the experiments of doctor Crumpe, on this subject, and the facts recorded by Wall, Campbell, and some other writers of a more recent date; he will there most probably find, that opium possesses something more than a *potentially sedative operation*, though it may not exactly suit the hypothesis he is anxious to establish. The elegant author of the truly philosophical work entitled *Zoonomia* considers this drug as possessing highly stimulant properties, and has consequently placed it under the head *incitantia*.

In the case of lord Lyttelton, the history of which is very well drawn up, there appears to have been nothing uncommon. It was evidently a case of great debility and deficiency of nervous energy.

The account of *hepatitis suppurans* is highly interesting, and deserves the attention of the medical practitioner. It fully proves that diseases of this kind are more frequent in this country, than physicians have generally supposed.

The case of hydrophobia is another melancholy proof of the ineffectivity of the modes of treatment which have been generally employed, and sufficiently shows the necessity of effectually destroying the affected part, either by cutting it out, or some other method.

We come now to the second part of the work, the *Essay on mineral Poisons*, by Dr. John J., which is unquestionably the most important and valuable. In the advertisement prefixed to the essay, the ingenious writer informs us, that it is part of a collection on medical jurisprudence, which he hopes some time or other to lay before the public. The subject of this paper is of considerable magnitude, as it involves the consideration of the effects of poisonous substances on animal bodies. But notwithstanding the extensiveness of the inquiry, and the difficulties with which it must have been attended, the author appears to have conducted it with much propriety and ingenuity; and has undoubtedly furnished a considerable portion of that kind of knowledge, which, from the sudden and unexpected effects of these deleterious substances, must frequently prove of the utmost importance even to unprofessional men.

The writers who have preceded our author in this track of useful investigation have left sufficient room for the further cultivation of the subject. The laborious researches of Fontana are confined to animal poisons. The work of Mead, which in its own age was probably more valued for its elegance than its depth, is now almost entirely useless, not merely from the fleeting fashions of theory,

but from the real progress and solid increase of knowledge. A complete revolution has since his time been effected in the science on which our knowledge of the nature and effects of poisons must chiefly depend. The face of chemistry has, in fact, been entirely changed by the successive discoveries of Black, Bergmann, Scheele, Priestley, and Lavoisier. Therefore, seizing the advantages which the extensive discoveries of modern chemistry have supplied, Dr. J. has produced an essay, not only more perfect in it's arrangement, more satisfactory in it's reasoning, but also much more practically useful, than any perhaps that has hitherto appeared.

He divides mineral poisons into metallic, earthy, and saline.

On the subject of the most common and deleterious of metallic poisons, arsenic, we shall select two passages, one as a proof of the accuracy and fidelity with which the author describes facts, and the other as an example of the ingenuity and modesty of his speculations.

Essay on Mineral Poisons—P. 21. ‘Arsenic, in all forms, that with sulphur alone excepted, is a sure poison in doses of six or eight grains, when taken internally: and, in some cases, it proves fatal in the small quantity of two, three, or four grains. It is corrosive to the taste, and the sensation remains upon the tongue for a long time. If the white oxyd be tasted, the taste is first of all acid, and subdulcid; which afterwards becomes penetrating and corrosive. When swallowed, this penetrating and corrosive taste, extends all down the throat, and is soon followed by great heat, and contrecction of the œsophagus, irritations, and nausea. Slight and aching pains then succeed, which gradually encrease to enormous anguish. Incessant vomitings also come on; the pulse becomes quick; the tongue and throat parched with heat, and intolerable thirst. Excessive anxiety is felt in the chest; and respiration is performed with difficulty and distress. The limbs are affected with tremors and cramps; and the body, flushed and spotted, at last swells to an immense size; when suddenly the pains abate, and the by-standers flatter the patient's recovery of health. But all the other symptoms continue unabated: the pulse is quicker than ever, the intolerable sense of heat and thirst is rather aggravated, delirium comes on, with hiccup, cold sweats, and convulsions, the countenance contracts a leaden hue, and death puts an end, at once, to torment and to hope.

‘This is the general course of the symptoms; but they are often varied in particular cases. Sometimes the delirium and convulsions accede early, and during the more violent action of the poison, but more commonly towards the close. The vomiting is generally tinged with blood; and sometimes the discharges by urine and stool, are also bloody: but these effects take place less frequently when the action of the poison is quick, than when it is protracted.

‘On dissection, the mouth, œsophagus, and stomach, are always found inflamed: the stomach particularly about its orifices; and its coats are so much intenerated, that a finger can be passed through them with a slight degree of pressure: 'tis also frequently corroded; and the corrosions are so peculiar, that they may be distinguished, with care and attention, from those of the digestion of the stomach, by the gastric liquor. From the gastric juice, the corrosions are jagged and irregular, and are only observable in the depending parts of the stomach.

mach. From arsenic, they are regular, as if nicely punctured by an instrument, and are observable in all parts of the stomach which the poison has touched, surrounded by the appearances of inflammation.

‘ The duodenum, and small intestines, generally partake, in some degree, of the inflammation, and subsequent mortification. Wherever the poison touches, there will be inflammation, and an uncommon secretion of mucus; and it may be carried through the whole extent of the intestines. Little information can be gained by examining other parts, than those immediately affected by the poison: with this view, the stomach and intestines should be minutely examined. We should not rest contented with merely inspecting the stomach; particles of poison may be pushed forward, as far as the rectum, and produce their effects through the whole extent of the alimentary canal.

‘ The brain never shews any particular mark, by which we may judge, whether a poison has been taken. The lungs are sometimes interspersed with black spots, and the right auricle of the heart is generally full of black blood. These appearances, probably, arise from the difficulty of respiration, or from its sudden interruption, and, are no criterions of poison; they are commonly observed in all cases of sudden death. The scrotum, and genital parts of men, are said to grow very soon putrid after death, from the poison of arsenic. Whether this is always specially the case, I do not know: certain it is, that the whole body much sooner assumes this appearance, than after any other cause of death, that is not equally sudden.

‘ On examination of the contents of the stomach, if arsenic were taken in its pulverised state, grit will be perceptible by the fingers; and in the smallest quantity, it will constantly sink in water. At any rate, it will emit fumes of a garlic odour, if sprinkled on a red-hot piece of iron, with some powdered charcoal, or any other inflammable substance; and these fumes will leave white spots on polished copper. The smallest portions of arsenic produce these effects. There are other modes of discovering it, by chemical tests and analysis, but I do not know whether they are more to be depended upon, than these I have adduced: they are certainly neither so easy, nor so fit for general use.

‘ But it is not only when taken into the stomach, that arsenic produces its fatal consequences. Worn in amulets, as it was formerly thought a specific against the plague, there are many instances of its having occasioned dreadful diseases, and even death: and used externally, in lotions or ointments, and applied in fumes, it is probably as deleterious, as when swallowed, if it be applied in sufficient quantity. In these cases, it is not easy to detect the cause of death, since the arsenic taken into the circulation by absorption, either suffers some chemical change, or is so minutely divided, as to be imperceptible by any test yet discovered. Nor are the symptoms so appropriate, as to warrant any positive decision concerning their cause. Sicknes, convulsions, and vertigo, are symptoms of diseases that do not spring from poisons: nevertheless it must be acknowledged, that their co-tenancy in cases of poison, is very singular;

and that the accurate observer, may form a judgment that will be more than probable, although not founded in absolute certainty.

‘ The symptoms produced by the external application of arsenic, are very different from those which follow its reception into the stomach. In the first case, great giddiness, with heat, thirst, quick pulse, difficulty of breathing, and anxiety, generally precede any local inflammatory symptoms: in the latter, the most violent symptoms of inflammation are produced, almost as soon as the poison can act on the stomach; and the apparent operation continues local, till near the close. From internal application, *all* the powers of life are attacked at once; the anxiety is extreme, as soon as there is any sickness or pain in the stomach: nor is the stomach always one of the first parts affected. Though for the most part, the stomach and bowels are first affected with violent pains, which wander to different parts of the body; an ardent fever rages, with excessive thirst; the secretory organs are excited into stronger action; great heat is felt with all the discharges, which are often bloody, as well as increased in quantity; when convulsions and delirium close the scene.’

After this faithful account of the symptoms produced by this dreadful poison, which seems to have been collected from the best authors with diligence and discrimination, we have the following conjectures concerning its mode of action.

Essay on Mineral Poisons. p. 37. ‘ Various powers, capable of destroying life, may be possessed of different properties, besides the essential one; and these properties will account for the diversity in the modes of death, from the various poisons. The corrosive qualities of arsenic, account for the pain and inflammation it excites, while abstracting the vital principle. Lauro-cerasus has no such power, and therefore it destroys without pain or inflammation. The poison that produces the plague, has killed persons instantaneously; its more general term of operation, is two or three days, and the symptoms it produces are various, according to this term. But in all these cases, there is something in the mode of destruction which obviously points out the same general cause; not as acting merely upon the nerves, nor as acting merely upon the blood; but as disuniting the component parts of the whole body in some manner, so as to produce death in a very short time.—What this cause is, we cannot explain, because we know not how life is joined with the body, in all cases.—Upon this subject I can only advance some obscure suggestions.

‘ Do not poisons act upon the muscular fibres, as well as upon the blood and the nerves? Does not the motion and powers of these fibres, depend upon their union with oxygene, taken into the body by respiration, and diffused by the circulation of the blood? Does not the action of poisons consist in disuniting the oxygene from these fibres so rapidly, as to extinguish their vitality, before they can have a fresh supply? The sudden extinction of life, in all cases in which the blood is deprived of oxygene, and the immediate succession of putrefaction, entitle me to make these suggestions; and give some colour to an opinion, which an enlightened and reformed system of

of physiology will, perhaps, some time or other, satisfactorily explain.'

It is impossible to read the last of these passages without feeling the warmest wishes for the success of the public spirited and truly philosophical labours of Dr. Beddoes, who, in defiance of no inconsiderable opposition from prejudice and illiberality, persists in employing his admirable talents, in a way which not only promises to extend the boundaries of science, but to furnish means of mitigating and probably of remedying some of the most grievous maladies that afflict mankind.

ART. VIII. *Observations, Anatomical, Physiological, and Pathological, on the Pulmonary System: With Remarks on some of the Diseases of the Lungs, viz. on Hæmorrhage, Wounds, Asthma, Catarrh, Croup, and Consumption; tending to establish a new Pathology of the Lungs, founded on the Anatomy and Physiology of the Parts. Some Remarks are introduced on the broken Wind of Horses. And to the Whole is added an Appendix, containing Observations on some of the Articles of the Materia Medica, viz. on the Rosa Rubra, Flores Chamæmeli and Sarsaparilla; as also on the Cicuta, Stramonium, Hyoscyamus and Aconitum.* By William Davidson. 8vo. 225 pages. Price 4s. in boards. Egerton. 1795.

THE consumption of the lungs is a disease of such frequency and fatality, that it has excited the attention of medical practitioners in a very considerable degree, and various plans of treatment have been proposed at different times for its removal; but we are informed by the author of the work before us, Int. p. ix, that 'the business of the following remarks, is to point out a principle hitherto neglected, but of the utmost importance, in the treatment of every morbid affection of the lungs; and from which arises a new pathology of all the pulmonary diseases, founded on the best of all possible bases, the anatomy and physiology of the parts. This principle, which, I conceive the reader will find established in the following remarks, is that of a particular and strict limitation of liquids during the treatment of every pulmonary disease; a principle simple and obvious, involved in no obscurity, and easily applied. It appears wonderful, that practitioners have never thought of this principle, but have, on the contrary, constantly treated patients, labouring under pulmonary affections, in the same way as if they had laboured under similar diseases of any of the other parts of the body. But it seems probable that this proceeded from their not attending to their peculiar structure, which is different from every other part of the body; for in all the other viscera, and in almost every other soft part of the body, there is some fleshy substance in their composition besides their vessels; but, in the lungs, there is no parenchymatous or fleshy substance, they being entirely composed of vessels of different kinds, of which the blood-vessels form a very principal part. Respecting the common treatment of pulmonary diseases, every practitioner knows, that the patient is ordered to drink plentifully of diluting drinks; which appear grateful to the patient, because the dry and irritable fauces receive a temporary

porary relief from the passage of these soft liquids. But who ever considers the structure of the lungs, and remembers that they are entirely composed of vessels, and that their natural functions cannot be easily performed, even in health, if much additional liquid is taken into their blood vessels, will immediately see the impropriety of the practice, and be no more astonished at our want of success in the treatment of their various diseases.'

Practitioners in the healing profession surely cannot but feel much obligation to Mr. D. for *thus* setting them *right* in respect to the cure of a disorder that has so long baffled their utmost efforts.

Though the author has not treated the subjects of this work in a systematic or connected manner, it may be necessary for us to examine the reasonings on which he has founded his opinion, and also the facts which he adduces in support of his *new hypothesis*.

He sets out by taking a cursory view of the anatomy and physiology of the lungs, in which he considers the air cells, or the ultimate terminations of the bronchia, as having no communication with the common cellular membrane of the lungs. In support of this opinion, he contends, that dropsy of the common cellular membrane of the lungs is frequently met with as well as effusions of blood and serum into it.

In Mr. D.'s observations on pulmonary hemorrhages we do not find much novelty, except in what respects his *new principle*, on which he reasons in the following manner. p. 20.

'The limited use of liquids, which is our *grand principle*, upon which the hinge of success in treating the disease now under consideration may turn, is placed next in order, although of the first importance. As the body, in its healthy state, is continually employing and discharging a particular portion of liquid, it is necessary that a certain quantity should be taken: but it commonly happens that from pleasure, or an evil habit, we drink much more than is required, and so over-distend the vessels, and embarrass nature in many of her salutary operations. In health, the quantity absolutely necessary is very inconsiderable; and, in sickness, we often drink too much. This has constantly been the case in pulmonary diseases; and particularly in hemorrhages from the lungs, according to the common method of treating them. Practitioners had surely forgotten that the chief cause of the rupture and hemorrhage, and the chief impediment to the cure, was the distention or too great fulness of the blood vessels; otherwise they would not have added to this fulness and distention by their plentiful dilution. When no very urgent symptoms of hemorrhagy are present, a pint of liquid, including tea and every other kind of fluid taken by the patient, is sufficient in twenty-four hours, and cannot safely be increased.'

In the cure of wounds of the lungs the author considers his *principle* as equally applicable and important. The cases which are here adduced, in confirmation of the *great* utility of a restricted use of liquids in pulmonary complaints, can however by no means be considered as sufficient proofs of the advantage to be derived

tived from such a practice, since other very powerful medicines were employed at the same time. This method of proceeding has led to much ambiguity and uncertainty in regard to the benefits which are to be expected from new modes of practice in particular cases of disease, as well as tended to bring useful methods of treatment into disrepute. To have ascertained fully the utility of the practice recommended in this work, no other remedies should have been employed along with it. We do not find, however, that in one single instance the author depended *solely* upon *his principle* of the sparing exhibition of liquids. In every case other remedies of a powerful kind were had recourse to.

But we do not, by any means, wish to *lessen* the importance of Mr. D.'s *discovery*, we shall therefore most readily allow him to speak for himself.

'The spare use of liquids,' says he, p. 46, 'may justly be considered as one of the greatest improvements in the modern treatment of hemorrhage: and particularly in hemorrhages from the lungs. And why should not the idea be carried farther? Indeed, from some cases I have lately attended, I think I may venture to assert, that, in all diseases of the lungs, moderate drinking will be of service. For seeing they are a congeries of vessels, if these vessels are overset, or kept in a continued state of distention, they may so press upon one another that their healthy actions shall be either prevented or greatly impeded, particularly the actions of the absorbent system: whereas, if they are but moderately filled, the different systems of vessels are left more at liberty to exercise their respective functions, either in the business of health, or in the removal of disease. When tubercles are formed in the lungs, why should they not be absorbed? We know that the most solid tumors in other parts of the body frequently disappear; and that even bone itself is capable of being absorbed, as is clearly demonstrated by the different changes which take place in it as well in health as in disease. And in the lungs there are many absorbent vessels, which, if their actions were not lessened or prevented, might soon remove the most confirmed induration of their substance. As emetics are powerful promoters of absorption, is it not on this principle that many patients, seemingly labouring under tubercles of the lungs, have been cured by vomits, particularly of the stronger kind? I hope the time is not far distant when practitioners, being better acquainted with the laws and functions of this important system, shall be enabled to direct its actions with more certainty, either in removing a tubercle or the most schirrous tumor. But when this happy period arrives it can only be carried into effect by a proper regulation of the quantity of liquids; and, in general, a diminution of the usual prescribed quantities. Perhaps the advantages arising to consumptive patients from a warm climate and the use of flannel, are principally from their doing the same thing as abstinence from liquids, viz. determining the tide of circulation to the surface of the body, and thus leaving the vessels of the lungs more empty, and, therefore, more ready to recover themselves when under the influence of disease.'

Our author next applies his *principle* in the cures of asthma, and the broken-wind in horses; but it's use in these cases seems to rest upon the same kind of incomplete evidence that we have already noticed.

In the fourth chapter Mr. D. considers the nature of pulmonary consumption. In his remarks on this fatal disease he assures us, that it is his intention to 'steer a middle course, and direct the attention of the reader to principles which he hopes are rational and consistent with the laws of the animal economy; by which he shall attempt to demonstrate that the hitherto declared *opprobrium medicorum*, the hitherto supposed incurable consumption, may be attacked successfully so as, in general, to bring about a cure if early application is made. And although he has no famous balsam, no specific remedy to propose, and no infallible cure for consumption, yet he shall endeavour to point out a *certain* plan of treatment, which, when properly adapted to the constitution of the patient and the particular circumstances of his case, will cure in the beginning and give infinite relief in the advanced stages of the disease.'

The remedy which is to effect all this, which is to accomplish the cure of pulmonary consumption, is nothing more than the *limited use of liquids!*

Respecting the removal of this formidable disease, the author reasons in the following way. p. 87.

'Now we have before observed, that any part of the body, when diseased, can only recover itself by the natural powers inherent in that part; and that, as no medicine, no application we know, can form the callus of a broken bone, so no particular medicine, we are acquainted with, can remove a tubercle or heal an ulcer of the lungs, if the natural powers of the parts do not exert themselves on the occasion.'

'But a broken limb has an advantage over diseased lungs, in as much as the former can be placed and retained at perfect ease, while the natural offices of the latter keep them in perpetual motion; which motion all authors have considered as a great obstacle to the cure. And indeed every practitioner knows that if this natural motion is by any means increased, or kept up, while they are affected by disease, the cure is thereby much impeded, if not entirely prevented.'

'For, in attempting the recovery of any great affection, either of the constitution in general, or of any particular part, both the body and the part must be, if possible, at rest. For example, a man affected with a fever will recover sooner, if kept quiet in bed, than if permitted to go abroad: and every body knows, that no man can be cured of a fracture, unless he allow the parts to be at rest. Now I trust those principles which tend to place the lungs, when diseased, in the same situation as to ease as a broken limb, when fractured, will be supposed the most rational in attempting the cure of pulmonary consumption. For if the lungs are retained in the same easy quiet state, as a broken leg, the powers of restoration will often, of themselves, accomplish a cure; in the way that the same powers bring about the union of a broken bone. To lessen their continual motion, therefore, or to keep the lungs as much as possible at ease, must constitute one of our chief indications, in attempting the cure of pulmonary consumption, from whatever cause it may arise.'

After taking notice of catarrh and croup, as diseases in which his new method of treatment may be employed with the greatest advantage; he proceeds to treat of the seat, origin, formation, and termination

nation of tubercle. He 'trulst that it will not be thought improbable to suppose, that a particle of inspissated mucus stagnating in one of the minute air cells, may give rise to tubercle; and that, as in an inflamed state of this internal surface, there will often happen an exudation of coagulating lymph, which is well known to adhere frequently with firmness to the surface where it is exuded; we may also conceive that some particles of this coagulating lymph, lodging in the air cells, may likewise become the nuclei of tubercles.' After making various remarks on this part of his subject, Mr. D. proceeds to the nature of the inflammation, suppuration, and ulceration of tubercle, and also the means of prevention and cure. But on these important points we have not met with any thing deserving particular attention.

In an appendix the author has introduced some observations on different articles of the *materia medica*. He contends, from an examination of the writings of Dr. Storck, that *cicuta* possesses a *directly sedative effect*; but surely the diminution of pain, or the lessening of irritation, by its use, can never warrant such a conclusion.

From this examination of Mr. D.'s reasonings it will be pretty evident, that he considers the vascular system in much too mechanical a point of view. He also seems to forget, that when a superabundant quantity of fluid is thrown into the stomach, it is frequently very readily carried off by the kidneys, as is evident in incipient intoxication; and which is probably to be explained only by the retrograde action of the lymphatics. But however this may be, we cannot consider his principle as founded in truth, until he has shown by much more satisfactory evidence, than what is produced in the present work, that the whole of the advantage gained is effected by the sparing use of liquids.

A. R.

NOVELS.

ART. IX. *The Black Valley; a Tale, from the German of Veit Weber, Author of the Sorcerer.* Small 8vo. 152 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

THE german tale must not be measured by the same standard with the english novel. While the latter excites tender sympathy by exhibiting natural scenes and real characters, it is the object of the former to create strange images, and to produce strong emotions by the representation of the wildest excess of passion. The english writer, by adhering closely to nature, often becomes insipid; the german, in giving unbounded licence to his imagination, is frequently extravagant: but there are few readers, who will not easily pardon those violations of probability, which amuse his fancy with pleasing and splendid visions, or which thrill his soul with grateful terrors.

This tale, written by the same author with the Sorcerer, [see our Rev. of the present vol. p. 53] partakes of the same general characters. The story is improbable, but highly interesting. The characters are strongly marked, but with less regard to moral propriety, than to impressive effect. The passions are expressed with vehemence; that of love, in particular, with gay but not indecent luxuriance. The style is concise, figurative, energetic.

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The period which the writer has chosen for his story is that of the croisades, when Jerusalem was taken by Godfrey of Bouillon. The principal persons are three daughters of a german baron, Gertrude, Cunegonde, and Adelaide, count Rodolph, Adelaide's lover, and friar Felix, a consummate hypocrite and villain. Gertrude, the eldest daughter, who at the death of her father had reached her fortieth year, inherits the whole stock of her father's avarice. The following sketch of her character will give the reader an idea of the bold style of Weber's painting.

P. 7.— Gertrude was the very effigy of her parent in a female dress: but like as were their persons, her mind was still more the exact counterpart of his. Her face was long and narrow; her eyes from excess of suspicion were ever half out of their casements, her nose was sharp and prominent as a church spout, and her chin pointed and projecting as the beak of a galley. Her cheek bones jutted beyond her shrunken cheeks like promontories; and just above these, her lurid eyes glimmered dimly like distant beacons. Extreme parsimony had pared her whole form to the thinness of a reed, and her bones rattled, when she moved, like a pair of castagnets, or a set of lace bobbins. Although her father knew, that an ample dowry alone could supply her deficiency in personal endowments, and procure her a partner of her joys and sorrows, he would as soon have given the last ruddy drop that warmed his heart, as a piece of his precious metal to provide her a consort. Avarice watched like a Cerberus over his coffers, and permitting entrance to every sum, great or small, denied regrets even to an obolus. Fortunate was it for her, that to all that can render man alluring she was an absolute stranger; for the vassals of the baron, hard-worked and ill-fed, lean, dry and fallow, were antidotes to desire, and scarecrows to every tender feeling. No feasts, no tournaments collected the neighbouring knights at Sunau, and afforded the hapless virgins a chance of a woer; nor were rich merchants ever tempted to resort to a place, which, from penury in the lord, and poverty in the servants, offered no sale for their commodities. 'Twas not, that young desires did not germinate in the heart of Gertrude; but not fostered and cherished from without, they languished, and died like rosebuds transplanted into a frigid atmosphere. Despairing at length of a husband, the hapless virgin made a merit of necessity, and resolved to devote that to heaven, which she was restrained from bestowing elsewhere; to renounce the usufruct of her charms in this world, that she might be repaid with large interest by the embraces of angels in the next; and she hoped, that though no trophies should be erected to her fame in the pantheon of love, she should gain a niche in the temple of religion. This determination, joined to correspondence of character, made her the favourite and confident of her parent, with whom she contemplated for hours the beloved gold, which the father did not idolize more than did the daughter (for whenever the heart is left vacant of its proper tenants, vermin and noxious weeds will infest it). They ogled and fondled their darling money, counted it morn and eve, prayed to heaven for its increase, and mocked all the joys of existence; the father, because age and disuse had left him no sense of their favour, the daughter, because she despaired of ever tasting them. The favourite of her father, she was the check and scourge of her sisters, whom she restrained from every

every slender amusement and pleasure, left within their reach by the paternal penury, and laboured incessantly to wean their fancies from the fading delights of love, and to inspire them with a passion for the incorruptible joys of a spiritual life, for the sainted ecstasies of midnight vigils, and the delicious pangs of conventional penance.'

Cunegonde is described as a wanton, devoted to the friar. Adelaide, just fifteen at the decease of her father, is all innocence and beauty. Taught by the crafty friar to dread wedlock, the three sisters devote themselves to celibacy, and build themselves three cells, with a chapel to each, where they become hermitesses, after depositing their property in the friar's treasury. The fame of these females, being soon spread abroad, reaches count Rodolph, a knight, who, after an unfortunate love adventure in the east, had returned with his friend Hugo of Heersbruck, to his barony of Felseck, in a state of insane melancholy. The sight of Adelaide restores him to his reason; a mutual and ardent passion is quickly kindled, and the artless Adelaide devotes herself for ever to Rodolph; but returns to her cell, till her knight comes to demand her of her sister Gertrude, as his wife. After a long dialogue, in which Gertrude asserts the claims of religion, and Rodolph,—not exactly in the style of a crusader, ridicules the cant of superstition; Gertrude requires three days to deliberate on Rodolph's demand. The interval is employed by the friar and Gertrude in forming, and executing, a project for the murder of Rodolph. To a miller, who inhabited *The Black Valley*, a devoted slave of the friar, is entrusted the assassination. A peasant is dispatched to Rodolph, to inform him, that a knight with whom he had joined fellowship in Palestine, waited in the mill of the black valley to greet him. He hastens thither. A storm rising, he seeks shelter in a tower at the entrance of the valley. Here, finding the place surrounded by a band of russians, he descends into a vault among human bones. The russians, terrified by the noise in the vault, flee to the mill in consternation. A pilgrim passing through the valley is murdered by the assassins, his head cut off, and the corpse thrown into the vault where Rodolph was concealed. Rodolph, determining to exterminate the execrable miller and his clan, clothes himself in the long tunic of the pilgrim, muffles up his face in his scarf, and enters the valley: but, mistaking his road, he is surrounded by a band of horsemen, seized and carried into a neighbouring forest. One of the russians brings to the sisters the head of the murdered pilgrim, and passes it for that of Rodolph. Gertrude and the friar exult: Adelaide seizes the mangled head in speechless agony. Rodolph, in the mean time, is conveyed by the horsemen to a castle, and confined to a glimmering vault surrounded by coffins.—Here, in order to present the reader with a piece of poetry, of merit above the ordinary level, we shall go on with the narrative in the words of the author:

P. 109.—' He examined the vault on every side in hopes of escape; but found no outlet except the grated door, which was so securely fastened as to defy all his wild attempts to force it. Beside him stood a pitcher of water, and a loaf of bread. Scarcely could the knight believe, when surprise and rage subsided, that he did not dream; but the pangs, that racked every member of his frame, convinced him of the reality of the scene, rekindled his phrensy and urged him to fresh struggles to escape, which were fruitless as the former. Weary at length,

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and oppressed with pain, he turned to contemplate his situation, and tortured his mind with vain enquiries concerning the cause, and author of his present captivity. His conscience was void of offence to any one, nor knew he a single knight, who had reason to bear enmity against him. His thoughts now rested on Adelaide, and a thousand fears for her safety disquieted him. He knew the dangers, which beset her from the avarice of the monks, and the envy of her sister, and again rage at his confinement was working him to madness, when his attention was suddenly attracted by hearing the tender accents of a woman, intermingled with the plaintive melody of the lute. He listened, and distinguished through the intervention of distance these words :

- When birds obscene shall leave their gloomy haunts,
And yelling wolves alarm the night's dull ear ;
- When rapine, murder, rear their hideous fronts ;
And elves and goblins taint the murky air ;
- When by the moon's pale beam, her noontide sun,
Night's plaintive bird shall seek the haunts she loves ;
- When Heaven's patrol its watchful rounds has gone ;
And through the argent air the sylphid people roves ;
- Then youth too dearly loved, I seek thy cell,
Where love alone shall our fond greetings hear,
He shall rob echo of her babbling shell,
And teach the jarring bolts to slide with silent fear.

• A loud roar of merriment from a remote part of the edifice interrupted the singer, whose liquid voice was lost in the vociferous clamour of rude joy and boisterous exultation.

• All conspired to complete the confusion of Rodolph, who, tired of fruitless surmise, and exhausted by his want of repose, during the two nights he had past in the black valley, cast himself on the bundle of straw, and was soon lost in deep slumber.

In this vault Rodolph is attended by a mute dwarf who brings him provision, but is kept ignorant of his situation. Adelaide, persuaded by Gertrude to believe that Rodolph's friend Hugo had assassinated him, vows revenge upon him in the tournament of Adolph. She appears there, and challenges Hugo as the murderer of her Rodolph. At this instant, Rodolph, who has been confined, and prepared for the combat, through mistake, instead of another knight, to whom Adolph owed vengeance, comes forth caparisoned in full armour. An explanation ensues : Rodolph and Adelaide are restored to each other with mutual rapture, and Gertrude driven, with a load of infamy on her head, to a cloister.

The story is related with much animation, and embellished with the decorations of style ; and the translator has displayed great ability, and an uncommon command of language. We recommend the performance to the attention of our readers, with the promise of elegant amusement.—We are surprised to find, in a work of such correct taste, twice repeated, the vulgar blunder of *ley* for *lie* : see pages 47 and 60.

D. M.

ART. X. *Nature and Art.* By Mrs. Inchbald. In two volumes. Small 8vo. 395 pages. Price 7s. in boards. Robinsons. 1796.

THE present novel, though written with a more philosophical spirit than the simple story, has not, on that very account, perhaps, an equally lively interest to keep the attention awake. The reason may be easily traced, without derogating from the abilities of the author. Virtuous prejudices produce the most violent passions; and, consequently, are the powerful engines to be employed in depicting the adventures, that become interesting in proportion as they exhibit the conflicts of feeling and duty, truly or falsely estimated.

This work abounds with judicious satirical sallies, and with those artless strokes which go directly to the heart. In fact, were we to characterize Mrs. I.'s peculiar talent, we should unhesitatingly say *naïveté*. The story of Hannah Primrose we found particularly affecting: the catastrophe giving point to a benevolent system of morality. The transitions, however, from one period of the history to another, are too abrupt; for the incidents, not being shaded into each other, sometimes appear improbable. This we think the principal defect of the work on the whole. The chapters conclude with a degree of laboured conciseness, which seems to disconnect them, or rather snaps the thread of the fiction. The reader jumps with reluctance over eighteen years; and is forced to reason about the fate of the favourite hero, which was before a matter of feeling.

The making a young modest woman, with tame powers of mind, acknowledge herself the mother of a child that she humanely fostered, in the presence of the man she loved, is also highly improbable, not to say unnatural.

Some of the conversations are written with dramatic spirit; we shall select two or three, as specimens of a production we wish to recommend to the youths of both sexes. Vol. I. p. 147.

"The first time he was alone with William, he mentioned his observation on Hannah's apparent affliction, and asked, "Why her grief was the result of their stolen meetings?"

"Because," replied William, "her professions are unlimited, while her manners are reserved; and I accuse her of loving me with unkind moderation, while I love her to distraction."

"You design to marry her then?"

"How can you degrade me by the supposition?"

"Would it degrade you more to marry her than to make her your companion? To talk with her for hours in preference to all other company? To wish to be endeared to her by still closer ties?"

"But all this is not raising her to the rank of my wife."

"It is still raising her to that rank, for which wives alone were allotted."

"You talk wildly!—I tell you I love her; but not enough, I hope, to marry her."

"But too much, I hope, to undo her?"

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"That must be her own free choice—I make use of no un-warrantable methods."

"What are the warrantable ones?"

"I mean, I have made her no false promises—offered no pretended settlement—vowed no eternal constancy."

"But you have told her you love her; and, from that confession, has she not reason to expect every protection which even promises could secure?"

"I cannot answer for her expectations—but I know, if she should make me happy as I ask, and I should then forsake her, I shall not break my word."

"Still she will be deceived; for you will falsify your looks."

"Do you think she depends on my looks?"

"I have read in some book, *Looks are the lover's sole dependence.*"

"I have no objection to her interpreting mine in her favour; but then for the consequences, she will have herself, and only herself to blame."

"Oh! heaven!"

"What makes you exclaim so vehemently?"

"An idea of the bitterness of that calamity which inflicts self-reproach! Oh rather deceive her—leave her the consolation to reproach *you*, rather than herself."

"My honour will not suffer me."

"Exert your honour, and never see her more."

"I cannot live without her."

"Then live with her by the laws of your country; and make her, and yourself both happy."

"Am I to make my father and my mother miserable? They would disown me for such a step."

"Your mother, perhaps, might be offended, but your father could not. Remember the sermon he preached but last Sunday, upon—the *shortness of this life: contempt of all riches and worldly honours in balance with a quiet conscience*—and the assurance he gave us—*that the greatest happiness enjoyed upon earth, was under an humble roof with heaven in prospect.*"

"My father is a very good man," said William, "and yet, instead of being satisfied with an humble roof, he looks impatiently forward to a bishop's palace."

"He is so very good then," said Henry, "that perhaps, seeing the dangers to which men in exalted stations are exposed, he has such extreme philanthropy, and so little self-love, he would rather that himself should brave those perils incidental to wealth and grandeur, than any other person."

"You are not yet civilised," said William; "and to argue with you, is but to instruct, without gaining instruction."

"I know, sir," replied Henry, "that you are studying the law most assiduously, and have vast prospects of rising to eminence in your profession; but let me hint to you—that though you may be perfect in the knowledge how to administer the commandments of men, unless you keep in view the precepts of God, your judgment, like mine, will be fallible."

Vol. II, p. 54. "Good heaven!" cried Henry, "and this is my cousin William's child!"

"But your cousin does not know it." Said she. "I never told him—he was not kind enough to embolden me—therefore do not blame *him* for *my* sin—he did not know of my wicked designs—he did not encourage me—"

"But he forsook you, Hannah."

"He never said he would not. He always told me he could not marry me."

"Did he tell you so at his first private meeting?"

"No."

"Nor at the second?"

"No, nor yet at the third."

"When was it he told you so?"

"I forgot the exact time—but I remember it was on that very evening when I confess to him—"

"What?"

"That he had won my heart."

"Why did you confess it?"

"Because he asked me, and said it would make him happy if I would say so."

"Cruel! dishonourable!"

"Nay, do not blame him—he cannot help *not* loving me, no more than I can help, *loving* him."

Henry rubbed his eyes.

"Bless me, you weep!—I always heard that you were brought up in a savage country; but I suppose it is a mistake; it was your cousin William."

"Will not you apply to him for the support of your child?" Asked Henry.

"If I thought he would not be angry."

"Angry!—I will write to him on the subject, if you will give me leave."

"But do not say it is by my desire. Do not say I wish to trouble him—I would sooner beg, than be a trouble to him."

"Why are you so delicate?"

"It is for my own sake—I wish him not to hate me."

"Then, thus you may secure his respect—I will write to him, and let him know all the circumstances of your case; I will plead for his compassion on his child, but assure him that no conduct of his will ever induce you to declare (except only to me, who knew of your previous acquaintance) who is the father."

To this Hannah consented: but when Henry offered to take from her the infant and carry him to the nurse he had engaged; to this she would not consent.

"Do you mean then to acknowledge him yours?" Henry asked.

"Nothing shall force me to part from him. I will keep him, and let my neighbours judge of me as they please."

Vol. II, p. 175. "Pray, master, what are all them folk gathered together about? What's the matter there?"

"There has been a funeral." Replied Henry.

"Oh

"Oh zoinks, what! a burying!—ay, now I see it is—and I warrant, of our old bishop—I heard he was main ill—It is he, they have been putting into the ground, is not it?"

"Yes." Said Henry.

"Why then so much the better."

"The better!" cried Henry.

"Yes, master—though, I should be loath to be, where he is now."

"Henry started—" "He was your pastor, man."

"Ha ha ha—I should be sorry that my master's sheep that are feeding yonder, should have no better pastor—the fox would soon get them all."

"You surely did not know him!"

"Not much I can't say I did—for he was above speaking to poor folks—unless they did any mischief, and then he was sure to take notice of them."

"I believe he meant well." Said Henry.

"As to what he meant, God only knows—but I know what he did."

"And what did he?"

"Nothing at all for the poor."

"If any of them applied to him, no doubt—"

"Oh! they knew better than all that comes to—for if they asked for any thing, he was sure to have them sent to bridewell, or the workhouse.—He used to say—" *The workhouse was a fine place for a poor man—the food good enough, and enough of it—*" yet he kept a dainty table himself. His dogs, too, fared better than we poor. He was vastly tender and good to all his horses and dogs, I will say that for him: and to all brute beasts: he would not suffer them to be either starved or struck—but he had no compassion for his fellow creatures."

"I am sensible you do him wrong."

"That he is the best judge of by this time. He has sent many a poor man to the house of correction—and now 'tis well, if he has not got a place there himself. Ha ha ha!"

"Did he give nothing in charity?"

"Next to nothing. A little weak broth, that runs through one's stomach like mad—a working man, master, can't live on such mess—and my wife wore out more shoe-leather going after it; and lost more time waiting at the door before his fat servants would bring it her, than the thing was worth.—However, as we should not speak ill of the dead, I say nothing against him. So good night, master."

M.

ART. XI. *Princess Coquedœuf and Prince Bonbon: a History as Ancient as it is Authentic.* Translated from the Neufrian Tongue into French, by M. Degacobub, and from French into English, by R. C. F. R. S. A. S. S. Acad. Par. Vind. Petrob. Holm. Lugd. Got. Compl. Ebur. Dubl. Aberd. Mediol. Patav. Burd. Flor. Sion. Rothom. Grubst. Socius Pastor Arcade, &c. &c. &c. Svo. 164 pages. Price 3s. 6d. sewed. Elmsly. 1796.

"As

"As ancient as it is authentic," most certainly: but also most certainly neither ancient nor authentic. We could easily add many other negative characters; it is not true; it is not probable; it is not natural; it is not interesting; it is not elegant. For its affirmative characters we are more at a loss. We admit that the performance is, as the editor calls it, inimitable; for we believe it to be more than a million to one that so *odd* a book should ever again be produced: but more than this we cannot say; for we do not think it entitled on any ground, except that of whimsical invention, to praise. If its fictions were consistent, and its personages like any thing human, its long strings of proverbs might remind us of our old friend Sancho Panza. If we could discover any wit, or any satirical meaning in the story, its coarse fancies might bring to our recollection the almost forgotten humour of Rabelais. But Rabelais and Cervantes must not be disgraced, by being mentioned in comparison with the writer of Princess Coquedœuf and Prince Bonbon. That our readers may not mistake the wonder we have expressed at this strange production for admiration, we shall quote a short passage, describing the birth of the princess. King Croquignolet, who had consulted a wizard, Dörduncœil, p. 24. ' received from him two eggs, of which he instructed him to keep one with the nicest care, and to break the other as soon as he should reach his own capital.

' The grateful monarch was going to launch out into a long and tedious string of acknowledgments—thrice he opened his mouth to speak, thrice his utterance was choaked by an involuntary stretch of the jaws, till at last the yawning ended in a sound sleep, of the duration of which he could form no idea. On waking he was agreeably surprised to find himself in the middle of his own palace, with the two eggs close by his side. At the sight of them all remembrance of past sufferings vanished. He immediately caused the grandees of the realm to be summoned, and, after making a recital of the eventful circumstances of his painful pilgrimage, took up one of the eggs, and, in obedience to the behest of the mighty Dörduncœil, broke the shell with great solemnity. In the twinkling of an eye out darted a little female figure, blooming as the dawn of day, arrayed in costly silks, and more loaded with pearls and jewels than a nabob's favourite mistress. Wonderful to relate! This angelic pigmy increased in height and size visibly and rapidly, till she attained the stature and shape of a girl of fifteen, endowed with such matchless grace, exquisite beauty, and captivating sprightliness, as had never before been seen united in one person. The spectators stood petrified with their mouths open, and dumb through amazement; the king himself did not dare to speak. The young princess, who was soon afterwards christened Coquedœuf by the acclamation of the whole assembly, on account of her extraordinary mode of coming into the world, and the dazzling whiteness of her skin, was the first to break this awful silence, with a voice more soft than a german flute. She addressed these elegant words to the prince—*Sire, I am well apprized of the infinite obligations I have to you, and the hardships you have generously undergone to procure for me the bleſſings*

sings of existence. Every day of my life shall be consecrated to gratitude, and shall prove to you the respect and love such a daughter bears to such a father.

‘The king, in raptures of wonder and tenderness, pressed her to his bosom, calling her his little darling, his jewel, and a hundred other pretty names. He bathed her face with tears of joy, while similar drops trickled down her cheeks, so that the bowels of every spectator yearned at the melting scene, and some began to sob, some to blubber, some to bray, some to bleat, and all to load Croquignolet with compliments on such a miraculous production.’

Enough of Princefs Coquedœuf! for prince Bonbon we must refer the reader to Mr. Degbacobub’s wonderful history—unless he choose rather to amuse himself with the more delectable history of Tom Thumb, or of Jack the Giant-killer.

ART. XII. *Louis de Bonœur. A domestic Tale.* By Catherine Clara. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 385 pages. Price 6s. sewed. Ridgeway. 1796.

After having lately seen the taste in novel writing seduced by one splendid example into an absurd fondness for improbable and terrifying descriptions, we are not sorry to find them recalled into the old track of a simple narration of probable occurrences, and an easy delineation of character and manners. The present novel is of this kind: it is translated from the french with some alterations and additions. The story, though simple, is wrought up with a considerable degree of art; and through the whole developement, the reader will feel himself much interested in the fate of the principal characters. Most of the females of the story are, in different ways, highly culpable; one for the insolence of pride, another for the craft of depravity, a third for the frailty of passion; but their faults bring with them appropriate punishment; and the reader, instead of receiving any seductive impressions, is taught useful lessons of morality. The principal hero is a pattern, somewhat romantic, of filial piety; it is, perhaps, not quite natural, to represent this affection as, for a long time, rivalling the powerful passion of love, and to convert the father into the brother, by marrying the father and son to two sisters: however, these circumstances contribute materially to the general effect of the story. Henrietta, the wife of the hero, is described as possessing so many amiable qualities, that we are scarcely reconciled to her seduction, especially as she had so powerful a motive to fidelity in her sympathy with her husband, who, supposing himself to have killed his father through mistake, sinks into a state of despair. The story is, however, on the whole, a good one; and will not fail to excite and sustain a considerable degree of interest in the perusal. The translator has performed her part with sufficient correctness.

ART. XIII. *Durval and Adelaide. A Novel.* By Catherine Clara. 12mo. 274 pages. Price 3s. sewed. Ridgeway. 1796.

This, too, is a french novel, translated with alterations, by the same hand as the preceding. The principal figure in the piece is Adelaide, who having entertained a virtuous passion for a youth of inferior

ferior rank, breaks through the restraints which custom has prescribed her sex, and makes an honest avowal of her love. Her passion is returned with equal ardour by Durval; but her father's family pride creates obstacles, which the interference of an indulgent mother is not able to overcome, till severe distress, in the last extremity, extorts his consent. The tale may not perhaps be exactly such as a cautious and rigid father would put into the hands of his daughter. The heroine, however, has no other fault, than that of asserting the natural right of disposing of her heart; and the story is told in a manner which must interest every reader, who is, or has been, susceptible of the tender passion.

ART. xiv. *Adela Northington, a Novel.* In 3 vols. 12mo. 704 pp.
Pr. 10s. 6d. bound. Cawthorne. 1796.

THE opening of this novel gives the reader some promise of agreeable entertainment. It introduces to his attention a young female orphan, thrown upon the protection of a friend, in circumstances, which, well managed, might have been rendered very interesting. But the writer, for want of that skilful arrangement which forms an uniform whole, has collected an ungrouped crowd of characters, and a confused mass of incidents, which produce no other effect than that of perplexing the reader. In the middle of the second volume, the writer, we suppose by way of *eking out* the work, introduces a set of letters, loaded with dull topographical description: he, moreover, annihilates every feeling of interest in the fate of the heroine, by marrying her, through the persuasion of a friend, to a man for whom she has no affection, and who, though fond of her from childhood, has seldom appeared in the course of the narrative: he soon, however, contrives to dispatch this husband, and, after some misadventures, provides the widow with another. But the raptures of the happy pair, instead of interesting the reader, become perfectly ludicrous; and it is with difficulty that he persuades himself to drag through the third volume. A few tolerable attempts at low humour are dispersed through the story; but the style, in the more serious parts, though affected, is never elegant, and is often extremely inaccurate, and even ungrammatical. The writer, to show his learning, talks of the 'summum bonum of felicity,' and the *sanctum sanctorum* of earthly bliss; of 'angry particles mounting into the face,' and of 'dispassionate seventy-five, whose vivacious particles are no more.' The reader will even be offended by such gross blunders, as *vacuem* for *vacuum*,—'deficient in tout ensemble'—and,—'the woes that's rung my heart.' But enough of this ill-constructed and ill-written novel.

E. D.

POETRY. THE DRAMA.

ART. xv. *Poems*: by G. D. Harley, of the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. 1796. Small 8vo. 295 pages. Price 6s. in boards. Martin and Bain.

MR. HARLEY has at least the credit of giving his subscribers and purchasers good measure; we seldom see a volume of poems printed in so small a type. With respect to the quality, which, in poetry

at least, is of more importance than the quantity, if we do not find in Mr. H.'s verses all the sublimity, elegance, and harmony, which may be found in poets who have had an opportunity of forming their taste upon the models of antiquity, we must do him the justice to say, that they bear evident marks of a ready invention, and considerable powers of description. Were the diction uniformly elevated above prose as much as we occasionally find it in some happy lines, we should be surprized at the facility with which the author has written such long poems. The whole volume, excepting about 40 pages, is filled with six pieces in blank verse, of which the first, entitled Night, contains above two thousand lines. In his description of evening and night, the poet introduces the village hind; two lovers eloping to Gretna green; the unhappy wedded pair; the suicide; the gamester; the libertine; the prostitute; the drunkard; the projector; the astronomer; the frequenter of the theatre; the miser; the disappointed merchant; the good and the bad man. The delineation of these characters with their respective situations, is natural and lively; but the portrait is often sketched with a slovenly hand; and the language is sometimes low and vulgar, and approaches, but never quite oversteps, the limit of decency. Mr. H. appears to have seen and observed life in various forms, but seems not sufficiently aware, that poetry requires something more than bare description. In describing the theatre, it may be expected that Mr. H. will be *at home*; and we do not know that we can give a more favourable specimen of his poetical talents, than in the following lines on this subject. p. 88.

The THEATRE, throws wide
 Her ample portals, her alluring doors;—
 Of ev'ry place where bright invention tries,
 To fix the ear and fascinate the eye,
 With varied pleasures, numerous as new—
 Of ev'ry subject, well design'd to work
 The heart's amendment—the arrested minds,
 Speedy improvement by instruction sweet,—
 First and great source of rational delight!
 Not only drawing in the vagrant foot,
 Of undetermin'd traveller passing by,
 But charming from the dear domestic scenes,
 The clust'ring parties of the bright fire-side,
 In coldest evening muffled winter owns;
 And bids them all forsake the circled hearth,
 'Fore which their sparkling eyes more bright appear
 Than in the frostiest hour its smokeless blaze!
 Forego the laugh, the frolic and the jest,
 The candour-temp'rd satire and the song,
 With every pleasure love and friendship forms,
 For little joyous groups in social room—
 To taste the higher banquet of the Stage!
 Where by the simple cunning of the scene,
 Poor care-craz'd minds their wonted tone regain;
 Where unfix'd spirits own a ruling power,
 Swell into mirth, or settle into thought:—
 The chasten'd school, where virtue leads her sons

To learn her precepts in their comeliest guise,
 And trace their happy influence o'er the mind :
 That public spot where vice a scourge receives,
 That brings the black blood from its desp'rate heart ;
 Where stubborn folly hourly writhes and smarts,
 Beneath the lashes of ingenious wit ;
 And where fantastic fashion feels a check,
 That bids her wanton drapery chaster flow.
 But much I fear, what all shou'd sure deplore—
 So much enervated the gen'ral mind,
 We shall not relish soon that wholesome fare,
 Which e'en improved, and never disagreed,
 With the brac'd staminas of days of old—
 Dazzl'd, and stunn'd, with senseless shew and sound,
 Dish'd neatly np to please the squeamish sense,
 We almost loath the full substantial meal
 Of sterl'ng merit to advantage drest :
 For if the thing be gaudy, new and bright,
 Whipt syllabub enough—we scarce enquire,
 Where is the brain, the liver, and the heart ?—
 Britons, arouse ! with sudden efforts strong,
 Correct a wandering vitiated taste ;
 The drooping honours of the stage support,
 Its rights and privileges lost, restore ;
 O'er all the light amusements of the times,
 Give to the ENGLISH DRAMA sov'reign sway,
 State and precedence, terror and controul !
 Assert her title, and surround her throne !
 Let not OLD ENGLAND e'er to *Gallia* yield
 One sprig of laurel, or one leaf of bay ;
 Let not her high-born soul be so seduc'd,
 To light unmeaning objects and pursuits,
 That after ages may with truth upbraid
 Our flimsy times, and tauntingly exclaim—
 “ We found more pleasure in a *frenchman's* heel,
 “ Than the full blaze of SHAKSPERE's muse of fire ! ”
 The foul and centre of the lesser orbs,
 That lend yet lose their lustre in his beams !—”

Had Mr. H. engaged some lettered friend to correct his poems, the preceding passage would not have been discredited by the vulgar mistake of *staminas* ; such a friend would also have struck out *delirium'd with pleasure* ;—*languishes thy delay* ; and other improper expressions. Mr. H. seems very fond of the inferiour animal creation : for he has celebrated, in a long elegy, a Newfoundland dog, and he has devoted two entire sheets of his volume to the description of ‘ a fine she-cat.’ A moral poem, under the title of Leander, intended to console a friend under trouble ; and a Legacy of Love, containing good advice from a father to his son, are among the larger pieces. In the latter Mr. H. speaks thus feelingly concerning the defects of his own education. p. 257.

‘ In lap of lank adversity *myself*
 Dandled on poverty's sharp-pointed knee—
 My scanty meal by late and early toil,

Labour not more extended than severe—
Paf'd the important fore-end of my time :
And little can I boast of knowledge gain'd,
(And less, much less of education given)—
But what delight in library confin'd,
My constant thwarted, but persisting mind
In stolen intervals enquiring glean'd—
Snatch'd from the perilous important hour,
At risque and hazard of a drubbing great ;

The lighter and more pleasant pieces in this volume are of the ballad kind. The reader will find tender sentiments and easy versification in the pieces entitled Lubin and his dog Tray; young Anna; and Love-lorn Anna.

ART. XVI. *The Modern Arria; a Tragedy in Five Acts.* Translated from the German of F. M. Klinger. 8vo. 92 pages. Price 2s. Boosey. 1795.

THE German dramatist Klinger is little known in England; and the translator of this play confesses, that even in Germany he ranks much below Schiller. He entertains, however, so high an opinion of the talents of this writer, as to pronounce not only Schiller, but most other votaries of Melpomene, as well ancient as modern, to be far his inferiors. From the supposed prejudice of Mr. Klinger's countrymen, and of the rest of Europe, the translator appeals to the discernment of the British public, and assures himself, that this island will have the exclusive honour of doing justice to his merit.—We would not hastily prejudge a question, on which we have not had an opportunity of obtaining full satisfaction; but we must confess, that we do not discover, in this specimen of Klinger's dramatic powers, that degree of excellence, which would authorize us to adopt the translator's opinion. Unnatural characters, improbable incidents, extravagant passion, and ranting language, are the distinguishing characters of this play; and these, according to the translator's own decision, are not excellencies in the drama; for, as an apology for the dress of plain prose, in which this tragedy appears, he lays it down as an axiom in dramatic criticism, that a play should be an exact representation of nature. Perhaps it would not be easy to find a play, which more violently outrages nature, than the Modern Arria. The translator refers his readers for the originals of the portraits drawn in this piece, to characters at present existing in modern Rome; but we cannot easily be persuaded to believe, that human nature can any where be so metamorphosed, as to exhibit such mad lovers as Julio and Solina. Without troubling our readers with the particulars of an absurd plot, in which the principal hero abandons a natural and tender passion, for the romantic adoration of a sublime woman, who requires from him a deed of great revenge, as the price of her love, and who, on the failure of the enterprize, acts the part of a second Arria, and dies with him in prison; we shall present them with a scene of courtship, which has at least the recommendation of novelty;

velty; for it is certain, as Solina says, 'this is, on neither side, a declaration of love according to the present mode.' p. 12.

[‘Enter Solina and Julio.]

‘*Solina.* You here again, Julio? and did not I tell you—

‘*Julio.* Here, Madam! ever here!

‘*Solina.* Very bold indeed, Julio! And in such a dishabille too! such a wretched plight! One would imagine you had had no peace of mind for this twelvemonth past.

‘*Julio.* Donna! the dishabille of love, that has almost bereft me of my senses.

‘*Solina.* And in this plight you are come to offer love to me?

‘*Julio.* My aim is here. Three long, long days and nights do I wander round the house, bewildered and lost in love, that sometimes exalted me to the stars, at other times sunk me as low again in despair. Donna! there is not a post that I did not embrace, not a window that I have not made a confidant of my passion. And not one glimpse! not a word of salutation in all that time! You even appeared to shun me. At last I could bear it no longer. I was driven, irresistably driven by my passion in hither. And Donna, as I entered, my soul was resolved; and this is its resolve! Love! Majestic Solina! I recede not a jot. Love! Love!

‘*Solina.* Have you forgot, Julio, what I have so often told you, that notwithstanding the great pretensions you carry in your countenance, you are too low and mean for my love? Desist Julio! be advised. Desist! Solina's love is too high for you; and you cannot stand the proof. Look at me, I beseech you; need I say more?

‘*Julio.* Yes! for that very reason. Sublime Solina! Let me hear it! Make me a King, a God! I shall be every thing with a single word of your's.

‘*Solina.* Weak, silly mortal! thou knowest not what thou askest. Desist. It were better for thee. What? Love wilt thou have, petty, insignificant creature? and must Solina Pisana tell thee, she loves thee? What then art thou for Solina Pisana? and yet so bold, so presuming! to ask what no man yet has dared to ask! How canst thou give thyself a soul? How canst thou give me love, and both without measure? Ha! a little heart, and even that divided!

‘*Julio.* Divided? Solina! he that has seen thee, must he not offer up his whole soul, his entire heart to thee? Thou goddess! that with a glance exaltest man above human nature: no one has comprehended that glance; no one can comprehend Solina Pisana. Ha, powers of enchantment! my soul is intoxicated. Hurl me from thy presence!—a veil over that majesty, or thou wilt annihilate me!

‘*Solina.* Ha! ha! ha!

‘*Julio.* Laugh on! Is Julio too little? Thy love, Pisana! Julio has Eagle's wings. Solina! thy love! Thou shalt say I am worthy of thee. By this lofty mien! thou shalt be proud of me!

‘*Solina.* Ha! ha! ha!

‘*Julio.* Go on! Laugh daggers into my heart! I have pride, Solina, a strong, a manly soul!

‘*Solina.* And yet canst thus talk to a woman?

‘*Julio.* I speak not to a woman. Wert thou as other women are, I would perish in the fire, ere I spoke thus.

‘*Solina.*

‘ *Solina.* Ha, Julio! thou soarest! thy spirit soars! It glows in thy eyes. Why do thy eye-balls roll thus? Will thy soul spring forth out of them? Ha! go on! I love thee!

‘ *Julio.* [Falls at her feet.]

‘ *Solina.* Dost thou feel it? What has entranced thee thus? Why tremblest thou? Art thou struck with thunder? Once more, I love thee! And thou art the first. I ever thought my proud heart would break, ere I said this to one of thy sex. Thou art he! Should my love not exalt thee, should thy spirit shrink—A slave to all eternity is he, whom Solina exalts not to a God.

‘ *Julio.* Say on! I am the man!

‘ *Solina.* Thou knowest not, how deep thou hast engaged thy soul; how much Solina exacts from one, whom she looks on, as she does on thee. Remember, Julio! Thy heart, thy soul, thou, thou must be mine. Could I possibly have more, I must have it. In this wide extensive world nothing else must engage thy attention. In my eyes must thou live, move, and exist. Is there a fibre, or a drop of blood in thy whole frame, that is not actuated by me, should Solina place herself before thee, one glance of her eye, and thou art gone.

‘ *Julio.* I swear!

‘ *Solina.* What wilt thou do? Swear to me? Ha! ha! ha! and oaths are profered to me too! Who is Solina then, if thy oaths have more power than she? Here is security for a thousand such baubles. Thy eyes fixed on mine! Nearer still! Do thy eyelids fall? There! stedfast! Pour thy whole soul into mine!—Good, Julio! I see thy spirit comprehends mine! I tell thee, all the men I have yet seen have shrunk back when they have met my eyes. Thine are fixed and unmoved! Thou art more than the king. When I approached the king, Julio, he cast his eyes down, and looked at his shoe-buckles, Ha! thought I to myself, are these king’s eyes? Now I have found my mirror. In the whole world of men there is not one of whom I could say this. Here is my hand, Julio!

‘ *Julio.* Thus, sublime woman! elevate and pursue me on to glory, till I am worthy of thee. This one kiss on thy white hand; if I dare to look for more, till I stand on the very summit, then precipitate me headlong from thy favor.

‘ *Solina.* Thou mayest dare more. This one kiss [he salutes her.] The first time since I was kissed by my father and mother.

‘ *Julio.* Ah Solina! let me—let me recover my breath! who can support the fire of thy lips!

‘ *Solina.* I have given thee much! By heaven! with this kiss thou hast stolen a consecrated treasure from my lips.—But I will see, if I have deceived myself. Woe to thee, Julio! if Solina be not to thee, what the earth is to the sun, or the enlivening breath of heaven to universal nature. Thy hand, Julio! Ah! this delicious tremor! Woe be to thee, shouldst thou not prove the man thy eyes and countenance prognosticate!

‘ *Julio.* Donna! I can only say, that this is the first day of my existence.

‘ *Solina.*

* *Solina.* Now to court! and let my image guide thy footsteps.

If this kind of extravagance should happen to suit the taste of any of our readers, they will receive abundant satisfaction from the perusal of the whole play.

ART. XVII. *The Loves of Troilus and Crefeid, written by Chaucer; with a Commentary, by Sir Francis Kinaston: never before published.* 12mo. 48 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Waldron. 1796.

In the year 1635, sir Francis Kinaston of Otely in Shropshire published the first and second book of Chaucer's *Troilus and Crefeid* *, with a latin version in rhyme, and in the preface promised to translate the remaining books in the same manner, and, in case that eslay met with the approbation of the learned, to publish the whole with a commentary, or notes, for the further illustration of the poem. The remainder of the work the author lived to finish, but did not publish †. The ms. after passing through several hands, was sold with the library of the rev. J. H. Hindley, in March 1793, and was purchased by Mr. Waldron, of Drury-Lane theatre. The ms. contains the five books of *Troilus*, together with the will of *Crefeid*, by R. Henderson, as a sixth book. This work Mr. Waldron now offers to the public. A part of the original poem and commentary, with some introductory extracts, are first published. The specimen may be expected to be acceptable to the literary antiquary, and to procure the editor sufficient encouragement to go on with his design of publishing the whole original poem and commentary, and, as a sequel, the latin translation, with a latin commentary on the whole. In the commentary the learned are promised much elaborate research, illustrative of ancient phraseology, customs, literature, and manners. An idea of the commentary may be gathered from the following specimen. p. 3.

* And for to have of them compassioun,
As though I were her owne brother deare,
Now hearkeneth with a good ententioun,
For now will I goe straight to my matere,
In which yee may the double sorrowes here
Of Troilus, in loving [of] Crefeide,
And how that shee forsooke him ere she deide:

¶. 7. * Some do not improbably conjecture that *Chaucer*, in writing the loves and lives of *Troilus* and *Crefeid*, did rather glance at some private persons, as one of king *Edward* the third's sons, and a lady of the court, his paramour; then (than) follow *Homer*, *Dares Phrygius*, or any author writing the history of those times: for first, it cannot be imagined that *Chaucer*, being soe greate a learned scholler, could be ignorant of the story; next, that he should soe mistake as to make *Crefeid* the daughter of *Calchas* the soothsayer, who was the daughter of one *Chryses*, and thereupon called *Chryseis*, whereas her right name was *Astyname*: then, that there should be

* Urry's *Chaucer*, pref.

† Biogr. Brit. ed. 1784. Vol. III. p. 466. n. U,

any

any love betweene *Troilus* and her; especially that *Chaucer* should personat her as a widdow, whereas indeed she was a votary to *Diana*; and being taken captive, and falling to *Agamemnons* lot, he having the use of her body, and defiling her, there fell a great pestilence in the campe of the Greeks; where *Calchas* being consulted what might be the cause thereof, told that *Diana* was incensed for the rape of *Chryseis*; whereupon she was delivered backe againe to her father *Chryses*, and in her stead (for great commanders cannot be without their wenches, *Mars* and *Venus* being usually in conjunction) *Agamemnon* took *Bryses* from *Achilles*; whereupon he tooke soe much discontent for the losse of his mistris, that he would never come to fight in the feild till he came to revenge the death of his cosin *Patroclus* upon *Hector*, whom he slew and dragged about the walls of *Troy*.

o. 8.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XVIII. *Letters for Literary Ladies. To which is added, an Essay on the noble Science of Self-Justification.* Small Svo. 200 pages. Price 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1795.

IN the present state of knowledge and civilization, it is surprizing, that the rights, the duties, and the interests of women should be so imperfectly understood, as still to leave it a subject of dispute, whether they should be treated by the men as equals, or as slaves;—whether they be to enjoy, in common with the other half of the species, the benefits and pleasures of intellect, or to be for ever kept in that state of subjugation which is the necessary consequence of comparative ignorance. The letters now before us, evidently the production of an enlightened and elegant mind, are happily adapted to correct some of those errors and prejudices, which have been long entertained, both by men and women, concerning the female character; and particularly to caution the fair sex against some ridiculous follies, and dangerous mistakes, into which their present mode of education frequently betrays them. The publication is directed towards several objects not noticed in the title. In the first place, the important question concerning the propriety of encouraging in young women a literary taste, is discussed in two letters. The first letter, from a gentleman to his friend on the birth of a daughter, states the inconveniencies which may be apprehended from attempting to give women knowledge and power beyond the limit of their domestic station and character; particularly, as it would expose them to the vexations and mortifications of envy, and would probably render them less amiable, by substituting literary vanity in the room of that retiring modesty which has more charms than the fullest display of wit or beauty. In reply to these objections, it is, in the second letter maintained, that women have commonly more leisure for improving their minds than men; that the female love of power is the effect of ignorance and bad education; that several branches of science are peculiarly suited to women, particularly botany and chemistry; that the delicacy of female manners is by no means necessarily injured, and that the domestic virtues are not likely to be weakened, but strengthened by knowledge. On this last topic, the writer remarks as follows:

PART

PART I. p. 68.—‘Economy is not the mean, “penny-wise and pound-foolish policy,” which some suppose it to be; it is the art of calculation, joined to the habit of order, and the power of proportioning our wishes to the means of gratifying them. “The little pilfering temper of a wife” is despicable and odious to every husband of sense and taste. But, far from despising domestic duties, women, who have been well educated, will hold them in high respect, because they will see that the whole happiness of life is made up of the happiness of each particular day and hour, and that the enjoyment of these must depend upon the punctual practice of those virtues which are more valuable than splendid. Taste, ingenuity, judgment, are all applicable to the arts of domestic life; and domestic life will be most preferred by those who have within their own minds a perpetual flow of fresh ideas, who cannot be tempted to dissipation, and who are most capable of enjoying all the real pleasures of friendship and of love.’

The second part of this volume contains a female correspondence, intended to expose the absurd notion, that the sole object of a woman’s life is to please, and to point out the ruinous consequences of despising reason, and indulging a morbid sensibility. The discreet and sensible Charlotte endeavours in vain to correct the frivolous taste of her friend Julia: she marries to shine, rather than to be happy; and her love of admiration betrays her into ruin. The story of Julia’s death is a very affecting and instructive tale; and the whole correspondence will afford excellent lessons to young ladies, whether literary, or inclined to adopt the too fashionable contempt for learning. We shall copy from this part, the following judicious observations on factitious sensibility:

PART II. p. 24.—‘You ask why exercise does not increase sensibility, and why sympathy with imaginary distress will not also increase the disposition to sympathise with what is real? Because pity should, I think, always be associated with the active desire to relieve. If it be suffered to become a *passive sensation*, it is a *useless weakness*, not a virtue. The species of reading you speak of must be hurtful, even in this respect to the mind, as it indulges all the luxury of woe in sympathy with fictitious distress, without requiring the exertion which reality demands: besides, universal experience proves to us that habit, so far from increasing sensibility, absolutely destroys it, by familiarizing it with objects of distress.

‘Let me, my dear friend, appeal even to your own experience in the very instance you mention. Is there any pathetic writer in the world, who could move you as much at the “twentieth reading,” as at the first. Speak naturally, and at the third or fourth reading, you would probably say, “It is very pathetic, but I have read it before—I liked it better the first time,” that is to say, it *did* touch me once—I know it *ought* to touch me now, but it *does not*; beware of this!—Do not let life become “*as tedious as a twice told tale*.”

The essay on the noble science of self-justification bears some resemblance to a celebrated piece, entitled, “The art of ingeniously tormenting.” The ironical lecturer takes as her text, or maxim, the doctrine that a lady can do no wrong: and on this foundation gives her pupils, the young married women, instructions how to combat that common enemy, a husband. The irony is throughout well preserved; the copy of manners, is, we believe, pretty exactly sketched from life; and the excellent *moral* not difficult to discover. We select

the

the following sage advice concerning the best method of conducting a *domestic argument*.

PART III. p. 19.—⁴ Begin by preventing, if possible, the specific statement of any position, or if reduced to it, use the most *general terms*.

‘ Use the happy ambiguity which all languages, and which most philosophers allow. Above all things, shun definitions; they will prove fatal to you; for two persons of sense and candor, who define their terms, cannot argue long without either convincing, or being convinced, or parting in equal good humour; to prevent which, go over and over the same ground, wander as wide as possible from the point, but always with a view to return at last precisely to the same spot from which you set out. I should remark to you, that the choice of your weapons is a circumstance much to be attended to: chuse always those which your adversary cannot use. If your husband is a man of wit, you will of course undervalue a talent which is never connected with judgment: “ for your part, you do not pretend to contend with him in wit.”

‘ But if he be a sober-minded man, who will go link by link along the chain of an argument, follow him at first, till he grows so intent that he does not perceive whether you follow him or not; then slide back to your own station, and when with perverse patience he has at last reached the last link of the chain, with one electric shock of wit, make him quit his hold, and strike him to the ground in an instant. Depend upon the sympathy of the spectators, for to one who can understand *reason*, you will find ten who admire *wit*.

‘ But if you should not be blessed with “ a ready wit,” if demonstration should in the mean time stare you in the face, do not be in the least alarmed; anticipate the blow which you could neither foresee, nor prevent. Whilst you have it yet in your power, rise with becoming magnanimity, and cry, “ I give it up! I give it up! La! let us say no more about it; I do so hate disputing about trifles. I give it up!” Before an explanation on the word trifle can take place, quit the room with flying colours.

‘ If you are a woman of sentiment and eloquence, you have advantages of which I scarcely need apprise you. From the understanding of a man, you have always an appeal to his heart; or if not, to his *affection*, to his *weakness*. If you have the good fortune to be married to a weak man, always chuse the moment to argue with him when you have a full audience. Trust to the sublime power of numbers; it will be of use even to excite your own enthusiasm in debate; then as the scene advances, talk of his cruelty and your sensibility, and sink with “ becoming woe,” into the pathos of *injured innocence*.

‘ Besides the heart and the weakness of your opponent, you have still another chance, in ruffling his *temper*; which, in the course of a long conversation, you will have a fair opportunity of trying; and if, for philosophers will sometimes grow warm in the defence of truth, if he should grow absolutely *angry*, you will in an inverse proportion grow calm, and wonder at his rage, though you well know it has been created by your own provocation. The by-standers, seeing anger without any adequate cause, will all be of your side. Nothing provokes an irascible man, interested in debate, and possessed of an opinion of his own eloquence, so much as to see the attention of his hearers go from him;

him; you will then, when he flatters himself that he has just fixed your eye with his *very best* argument, suddenly grow absent: "Your house affairs must call you hence—or you have directions to give to your children—or the room is too hot, or too cold—the window must be opened—or door shut—or the candle wants snuffing."—Nay, without these interruptions, the simple motion of your eye may provoke a speaker; a butterfly, or the figure in a carpet may engage your attention in preference to him; or if these objects be absent, the simply averting your eye, looking through the window in quest of outward objects, will shew that your mind has not been abstracted, and will display to him at least your wish of not attending; he may however possibly have lost the habit of watching your eye for approbation; then you may assault his ear. If all other resources fail, beat with your foot that dead march to the spirits, that incessant tattoo, which so well deserves its name. Marvellous must be the patience of the much enduring man, whom some or other of these devices do not provoke; flight causes often produce great effects; the simple scratching of a pick-axe, properly applied to certain veins in a mine, will cause the most dreadful explosions.'

We recommend this elegant publication to the attention of our female readers, whether single or married; assuring them, that unless they have a much greater, or a much less portion of wisdom than the generality of the sex, they will find in these letters instruction as well as entertainment.

ART. XIX. *The Ranger: a Collection of Periodical Essays, inscribed to the Rev. Thomas Atwood, M. A. By the Hon. M. Hawke, and Sir R. Vincent, Bart. 2 Vols. 12mo. 532 Pages. Price 7s. sewed. Brentford, Norbury; London, Parsons.*

If it will not be received as a recommendation of these periodical papers, it must, at least, be admitted as some apology for any imperfections which the reader may discover in them, that they are, chiefly, the productions of two young men, whose ages, taken conjointly, do not amount to *thirty-three* years. The work is modestly offered to the public as a set of juvenile exercises in composition, undertaken from a desire of private improvement in literature, and under the idea, that a consciousness of writing what was to be submitted to the public inspection, and was extended for public entertainment, might make invention more active, and judgment more cautious and correct.

The form of periodical essays, on account of their customary brevity and variety, may, at first sight, appear very proper for the early efforts of literary ingenuity. But, when it is considered, that in publications of this kind, each paper passes separately under the eye of the reader; and is expected to be, independently, capable of amusing or instructing him; when it is observed, that periodical essayists have chiefly derived their celebrity, and perhaps their utility, from those papers, in which they have employed their knowledge of the world in the correction of it's follies; and when it is, moreover, recollecting, that every new adventurer in this walk of literature brings himself into immediate comparison with Addison, Chesterfield, Hawkesworth, Johnson, and other eminent masters; it may possibly be questioned, whether these young writers have made choice of the easiest path to

the temple of Fame. Their success, however, independently of all adventitious circumstances, must rest upon the intrinsic merit of their performance: and, with respect to this, we have no difficulty in giving it as our opinion, that these essays bear marks of sound judgment, and correct taste, beyond the ordinary level of juvenile productions. With the exception of a few sketches from fancy rather than from nature, the delineations of character given in these papers prove, that the authors have furnished themselves, from reading or observation, with many just ideas concerning human life and manners.

The pieces are of a serious, rather than ludicrous cast; they are not, however, dry moral essays, but are enlivened and diversified, like former works of the same class, by letters, characters, dreams, and tales. The moral tale of Emma, which occupies four numbers, is a short but interesting novel. Two oriental tales are introduced, in which the manner of Hawkesworth is tolerably well imitated. It may be mentioned as, in the present times, a circumstance of some merit, that two volumes of periodical essays are written without meddling with politics. The topics of these papers are such, for the most part, as respect general manners: many of them are pointed against those smaller deviations from propriety, which, though not direct immoralities, are occasions of vexation, and sources of infelicity: several are designed to correct, with easy good-humour, the follies and foibles of the female character. In a paper on the unhappy influence of fashionable education on manners, particularly with regard to the female sex, in relaxing the ties of domestic affection, the interesting topic is well illustrated by the following dinner scene. P. 147.

‘ I was particularly disgusted yesterday, in a visit I made to a family, from whom I had received an invitation to meet a large party at dinner. I have been about a week in town, at the house of a relation, where my eldest sister is upon a short visit; which she obtained permission to pay, upon condition that I should accompany her, and undertake the office of her guardian. Indeed, I believe there is little danger in the world for Emma, whose education has been so perfect, and whose principles are so innately correct:—though possessed of a large share of personal beauty, her mind is so superior to vanity, that she appears totally unconscious of attractions, which must naturally gain her much admiration.

‘ At the hour of seven we sat down, about twenty in number, to a splendid dinner, at a table where a lady and gentleman were alternately placed. I took a survey of the company, and for some time was engrossed by remarking their different physiognomies. My sister, I believe, was the only natural beauty, amongst the ladies; and the advantage, which her genuine bloom gave her over the artificial roses that surrounded her, was evident from the universal attention she attracted from the men.

‘ While I was lost in a kind of reverie, I was roused by a burst of laughter from my female neighbour on my right hand, who asked me if I were in love, as I was deaf to her entreaties of being helped to a patte from the dish before me. I felt awkward at the reproof my absence merited, but instantly endeavoured to repair my neglect, by answering her with affected gallantry, that my heart had been my own till the moment I had beheld her. This increased the lady’s mirth, and she informed me that my flame must be hopeless, as she was the wife

wife of the opposite gentleman, to whom she pointed, who sat next my sister. 'His neighbour,' added she, 'seems a piece of still life, and appears in the clouds as well as you; what think you of transferring your attentions to her?—' *That*,' returned I, 'is rendered impossible, since the lady is my sister.' 'Well,' retorted the coquette, 'I protest I see a likeness; but for heaven's sake, if you have any influence, laugh her out of that grave demure air, it will never do in the circle of ton;—if we were acquainted I think I could be of service to her.' 'I fear,' said I, 'my sister would be a troublesome scholar, being quite a novice in the school of ton.' 'Don't despair,' retorted the lady, 'her figure has some fashion, and I have no doubt but a few lessons will do.' I then observed, that though her superior talents made her equal to the task she had undertaken, on the score of *age* her advantage was but small. A smile of conscious pleasure exulted in her features, 'young as I am,' said she, 'I have been these three years married.' This information induced me to make a more minute survey of this lady's person, when I discovered that the tout ensemble of the young matron, which at first view I had decided to be beauty, was no more than the effect of youth, which combined with the aid of art to render a childish set of features showy and attractive; but I presently discovered, that she had no countenance, and that a vacant mind was as visible in the senseless stare of her eye, and the broad grin which animated her features, as in her pert and trivial conversation. Probably had this young creature been some years longer detained within the confines of maternal restraint, education, in opening her understanding, might have refined her heart, and consequently her countenance would have imbibed that interesting sensibility and modesty, without which, beauty can have but little effect. I cannot leave this frivolous character without giving one more instance of its folly and its ignorance.

'Having, while I dipped my fingers in a water glass, taken off a ring, and placed it beside me, the lady snatched it up, 'a discovery!—a discovery!' exclaimed she, grasping it between her two palms, 'acknowledge, before I return it, that this represents the favorite of your heart.'—'I do confess,' replied I calmly, 'that it is the portrait of the woman nearest and dearest to my heart, that the original is a pattern for her sex, and that I am proud to call her *mother*!'

'Never shall I forget the indignant scorn, with which she viewed me and tossed the miniature from her.—'Your mother!—Oh, heavens!—I have done with you, I find you are a dowager young man, just released from your *mama's* apron string.' 'You, I conclude madam,' interrupted I, 'left your's in infancy, before you knew the value of the friend you mourned?' 'Indeed you are mistaken,' replied she, 'yonder sits my lady mother at the upper end of the table.—She is not yet tired enough of the world to quit it; cards supply the loss of admiration.—We are upon the civillest footing imaginable;—we visit occasionally, and as she is tolerably good humoured and never pretends to lecture me, I keep up my acquaintance with her. She well knows I would not submit to any liberties from her, and should certainly drop her, were she to encroach beyond the limits of politeness.—In this *age*, the spirit of *independence* teaches us, that we outgrow the servility of childhood with our frocks; that a very few years frees us from the bondage of an obedience exacted from us (before we can judge for ourselves).

ourselves) by those whom the chance of birth has rendered our parents. All respect afterwards, is merely courtesy,—the old and the grave are bad companions for the young and gay, and it is a horrid custom that they should be allowed to mix in our societies; they are only fit to herd together; indeed they are shocking mementos of mortality, and terrify one to death, reminding us of what objects we ourselves may become, when youth and beauty shall be no more!

‘ I turned with disdain and disgust from this contemptible woman; who, a few moments afterwards, to my great satisfaction, retired, with the rest of the ladies, to the drawing room.

‘ This instance of depravity in one of my fair country women has engraven a deep impression upon my mind, and makes me tremble for the morals of a future generation. If such is the fatal delirium that possesses the minds of those females who hold distinguished places in the circles of fashionable society, I would shun all intercourse with them, as I would with those unhappy maniacs who are permitted to wander up and down the world. I must fly into the recesses of private life to find a partner congenial to a soul, so sensibly alive as mine to all the tender endearments of social affections;—the woman to whom alone I can consecrate my heart, must have already discharged, irreproachably, the duties of a daughter, before I can select her for the wife of my choice, and for the mother of my children.’

As these papers are throughout perfectly correct in moral principle and tendency, so they are written with great accuracy, and propriety of language. That the productions of such young writers are so free from puerile decorations, is a sure proof that their taste in writing has been formed from the best models.

We shall add, as a further specimen of the correct style of these papers, the following letter from one who purchased a reputation for wisdom at the cheap rate of holding his tongue. VOL. II. p. 140.

“ Sir,

“ The philosopher, in the dark retreats of solitude, is enabled to form the tenets and confirm the opinions of his sect. Retirement is the proper scene for the attainment of that science which he desires; and here, as in the most congenial soil, his affections are rooted. Far different is it with the man of the world;—his knowledge can only be derived from those departments, where his inclinations have placed him, from the intercourse of general life and the bustle of society. Choice rather than necessity early inrolled me in this latter description; and into whatever mistakes I may have been unwarily betrayed by a natural partiality for my own sentiments, daily experience forcibly corroborates one opinion, which prudence taught me to entertain, and to which, I must confess, my chief success in life may be justly attributed.

“ I observed that the most fertile genius, by daily holding forth in company, became exhausted and barren; that wit and vivacity could not continually retain their charms; that the quickness of repartee lost its poignancy by repetition; and that conversation was often turned from its line of direction, only to introduce some miserable pun or hackneyed story. It was to this that I ascribed the daily failures of the witty and the gay; and resolved, in consequence, to chalk out for myself a different mode of conduct. Instead of attempting to figure as a speaker, I was contented to mingle in company as a mute; while

a ~~no~~ or a ~~yes~~ was always at the service of my friends, to support their observations and to encourage their display of knowledge in the dialogue. As I mutually agreed with each, I was alternately welcome to opposing factions; and while I flattered the vanity of my companions, I gained the reputation of being acquainted with every topic of discourse. *Ruricola* declared in a large company, that *Sagely* knew more of agriculture than half his countrymen; because I had given an acquiescent nod to one of his projects of improvement. There are others equally disposed to assert the depth of my proficiency in politics, mathematics, history, music, painting, poetry, and in short throughout the whole circle of general knowledge. Thus, by diligently considering the pursuits and favourite studies of my companions, I can immediately suggest a few hints on the subjects with which they are acquainted, and turn the conversation on their favourite topics. A new audience would not indeed be surprised with my eloquence or knowledge; but I have the satisfaction of being pointed out by those who are more intimately versed in my character, as a man of deep remark and solid judgment; my associates are neither fatigued nor disgusted with any of my observations; and each circle of acquaintance still fondly welcomes the presence of,

Your servant and admirer,

SILENT SAGELY.

The subjects of these essays are: Vol. I. The danger of ambition in common life; defamation; the folly of singularity; the value of the study of antiquities; philanthropy; happiness from the mind; travel; female blandishments; necessity of discretion; the art of book-making; pedantry; fashionable female education; the fallacy of external appearances; the abuse of the pencil, and the mischief of unrestrained talents; complaints of genius; character of a female manager; evils of curiosities; singularity from a desire of attracting observation; the luxury of the table. —Vol. II. The immoderate pursuit of pleasure; extravagance and dissipation; Emma, a moral tale; vanity and self-confidence; trifles often the occasion of serious evils; the mixture of good and ill in human affairs; loquacity; arrogance and officiousness; the choice of a husband; disadvantages of populous cities; procrastination; self-importance; family pride; choice of a wife. Poetry; ode on Warwick castle; hymn to friendship E. D.

LEGISLATION.

ART. XX. *Principles of Legislation.* By Charles Michell, of Forcett, Esq. 8vo. 515 pages. Price 7s. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1796.

IT is extremely difficult, amid the present war of opinions, to lay down principles of legislation, that do not favour of national or party prejudice. Notions, caught up in the hurry of alarm, are but ill adapted for a permanent basis, whereon to erect the superstructure of a wise jurisprudence. In all such cases, the ground work should be indisputable, and the theory independent of events.

The following quotation, which contains the whole of the preface to this work, will show how far the author has been influenced by

temporary views and recent occurrences: it will, however, at the same time evince his candour and ingenuousness.

‘ This essay, begun at a much earlier period, was finished in its present form during the spring of the year 1794. Circumstances that delayed the publication, afforded opportunities to make considerable additions, but impeded the correction of what was already written, so as to suit the progress of events. In one or two instances I attempted to remedy the defect by a note, but soon found that the note might itself, before the period of publication, be as obsolete as the text, and desisted from an unavailing task. During this lapse of time, much also has happened to diminish the utility of the work. Conjectures are changed into certainties. Tenets have been combated, that are now generally relinquished, and arguments are become trite, or superseded by facts. Yet nothing has occurred that appears to militate against the principles which I have ventured to advance, and of them too many remain, which by their novelty will offend; and, which I fear, may require a stronger support than I have given. The justice of a cause is, however, independant of the strength of an advocate, and my principles are not false, because my arguments may be inconclusive. I shall be much obliged to those who will candidly correct my errors, and still more so to him, who will point out, what I have seriously sought, the path of truth.’

Mr. M. observes, that the two following are the fundamental maxims of the french constitution.

‘ Man is born equal—and continues equal in his rights.’ While others have exposed the folly of considering these general truisms as a good foundation for a code of legislative policy adapted to a particular state, he contends, that as far as they are applicable to the science of legislation, ‘ they strongly enforce the necessity of framing a constitution on principles directly opposite to those adopted by the french.’ We do not here agree with those who would shroud great truths under the veil of obscurity. Society is intended to protect the weak against the strong, and the recognition of the principle of equal rights in any national code inculcates a perpetual lesson to the government. Equal rights are not incompatible with unequal powers, attainments, and property, and the inuendo is not clearly made out, that the french constitution is hostile to these ‘ truisms.’

We entirely agree with the author, that a general eagerness to obtain offices is a convincing proof of general corruption, and that the hiring of foreign troops evinces a decline in the genius of a nation. That ‘ government and the nation are one and the same thing,’ is a very disputable position; and the doctrine of ‘ modern philosophers,’ as to “ the cruelty of tearing a man from his family and peaceful occupations, in order to assist in butchering his fellow-creatures, with whom he can have no quarrel, whenever any of the sceptred robbers of the earth happen to be inspired with a lust of dominion or military glory,” is much easier quoted than refuted.

In chap. vi, we are told, that the law of primogeniture ‘ has been reprobated by incendiaries, to foment the general discontent,’ and yet in the very next paragraph we learn, ‘ that it is certainly an obitacle to that degree of division of property, which might be wished for, and which is one of the most effectual causes of national profligacy.’

The lawyers are blamed, and termed bad legislators, for having impeded the operation of entails, which would otherwise retain an estate in the *male* branches of a family; in other words, one abuse ought to support another, and perpetuity and primogeniture (the first abhorred by our law, and the second discountenanced by reason) should go hand in hand. This odious doctrine would be unjust in any nation, but impolitic in the extreme in a commercial one.

The preference here given to agriculture over manufactures is in our opinion commendable, and we are happy to see the idea become daily more prevalent.

P. 111. ' In England, we at present depend almost entirely on our manufactures, as a nursery for soldiers; and Mr. Hume * considers it as one of the many advantages attendant on thriving manufactures, that they furnish a sure supply of men, who, in time of need, may be converted into soldiers; and that therefore the power of a state in war, is proportionate to its trade and manufactures. This reasoning seems erroneous: it is also contradicted by facts: for commercial nations have always been soonest exhausted by war; and the cause is obvious, their fund for recruiting their armies is neither equal to the demand, nor lasting. After the first sweep of men, thrown out of employment by a stagnation of business at the commencement of hostilities, no more are to be had, without giving enormous bounties, which tempt the idle and the dissolute from labour. If the war lasts any time, a succession of recruits arising from youth to manhood, cannot be expected. Manufactures in general, even in time of peace, do not rear many children. In time of war, the children of those who enlisted, or who are half starving for want of work, crowded into cities, where neither law nor charity can find them, are almost sure to die young. Besides, when the manufacturer enlists, the manufacture stands still; and a state, in proportion as it furnishes itself with one of the sinews of war, deprives itself of the other. Manufacturers are also, from their debauched lives and unhealthy constitutions, in general unfit for soldiers; they are unable to support the fatigues of a campaign, and are in the hospital before it is half finished. They may fill a muster-roll, and may delude a nation and a government into an erroneous opinion of their strength, until in a short time, they find themselves exhausted in men and money, by maintaining a force, trifling indeed when compared with that of other states, which possess not half the same apparent resources.'

' Agriculture forms men peculiarly adapted to war, as it is carried on by civilized nations, and it is almost an inexhaustible nursery of recruits, who may be withdrawn from their labours without injury. A given tract of ground cultivated by ten men, we may suppose will feed fifty; but the same tract may still afford employment to two or three additional labourers, who will draw from it their subsistence; though perhaps little more. These supernumeraries in agriculture are the fund from whence armies ought to be recruited, their children, and the children of the first ten, who are not wanted to replace their parents in husbandry, must supply the consumption occasioned by un-

healthy branches of commerce and manufactures* : and a nation that understands its own interests, will never allow these branches, however profitable, to employ so many hands, that the overflux of agricultural population cannot replace the consumption, besides leaving an ample supply for defence in case of war †.

‘ That nation is truly powerful, which depends on agriculture for men, on commerce and manufactures for money : and although one chiefly commercial may be better calculated for splendid schemes of distant conquest, one chiefly agricultural will prove infinitely stronger in defensive war.’

The following is the author’s opinion relative to a standing army.

‘ Whether, therefore, the object be national defence against the attacks of an enemy, security against internal convulsions, or the moral character of the people, a standing army may be deemed essentially necessary in all opulent and civilized states. Instead of rejecting it as an alien, we should adopt and cherish it, and while we render it capable of effecting its primary object, national defence, all necessary precautions should be taken against its being perverted to the support of internal oppression. To guard against this danger, three regulations ought to be established, and they will suffice. 1st. A qualification of immoveable property should be required in the officers, of such a value as to render them (to use the language of the day) independent gentlemen ; that is, officers should be men who, if not officers, would probably have followed no profession for the sake of pecuniary emolument ; and although this qualification should be rated somewhat too low, few of small fortunes who might be thus included, would engage in a profession, which though highly honourable, neither can nor ought to be lucrative. But instead of regulating the standard of property on the principle of our militia, which ensures and aggravates the evil it is meant to prevent, the qualification for a general and an ensign ought to be the same.

‘ 2dly, The army should never be employed, even at the requisition of the civil magistrates, to quell riots. This limitation to the power of abusing the command of the military to unconstitutional purposes, is not a sufficient safeguard. A corrupt magistrate may at all times easily be found ; and so odious and frightful in their conduct are popular assemblies, however justifiable in the cause of their insurrection, that we are apt to forget which party was originally to blame ; and to avoid an immediate and personal, but perhaps trifling evil, we side with government, and have often to support measures ruinous to national welfare. No injury that can arise to individuals, ought to be

‘ * It is said, that no instance can be produced of the silk weavers at Lyons, lasting for three generations ; the first is feeble, the second diseased, and the third never comes to maturity. Townsend’s Tour through Spain.—If the author was not deceived, may we not determine that such manufactures, would soon render a country, cultivated according to Mr. Young’s system, a desert ?

‘ † If the laws of Egypt, which enjoined children to pursue the professions of their parents, were enforced in England, many branches of commerce and manufactures which have been called nurseries, would be proved graves.’

put in competition with the purity of a free constitution; and the law may easily afford to individuals a recompence.

‘ And with regard to those uncommon and dangerous insurrections, which sometimes though rarely occur, when a populace, misled by some wild enthusiast, or artful demagogue, and encouraged by impunity, really shake the foundations of regular government; the wisdom of the British constitution has afforded a safe remedy, which ought to be imitated by all nations. The interference of the military may be permitted under the sanction of a bill of indemnity. If the police is not strong enough to preserve peace in ordinary times, the police should be strengthened; but soldiers should never be allowed to act as peace officers.

‘ 3dly, No officer should be liable to be dismissed, but by the sentence of a court of judicature, whose constitution and mode of proceedings should be regulated by the legislature of the state. This precaution is necessary to prevent the army from being garbled, and does not in the least interfere with, or entrench upon the plenitude of military authority, which ought to be vested in the executive power.’

We lament with Mr. M., that a national party no longer exists; and that peerages, pensions, and honours, not death, imprisonment, or fines, have been the rewards of successive male-administrations. The hint about ‘the fabled policy of the beaver’ is worthy of attention during times like the present.

The author, from an abhorrence to anarchy, often inclines to despotism; and he is urged, like many others, out of hatred to the crimes perpetrated in France, to shudder at the idea of a struggle for liberty. Upon the whole, however, we are inclined to believe, that, during any other period than the present, he would have been one of the most zealous sticklers for freedom, and trust, that, after due reflection, he will expunge many passages in the work now before us.

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MECHANICS.

ART. XXI. *Remarks on the present defective State of Fire Arms, showing the Danger to those who carry them; together with an Explanation of a newly invented Patent Gun Lock, by which all the present Disadvantages are removed, and Simplicity, Security, and Durability substituted.*
By G. Bolton, Esq. 8vo. 88 pages. Price 1s. Egerton. 1796.

MILITARY men have long complained of the frequent inefficacy and constant danger of the firelocks now used by our soldiery; indeed, they are sometimes as fatal to themselves as to the enemy. Sportsmen, also, particularly such as are fond of cock-shooting, &c., are often exposed to meet with melancholy accidents. To prevent such misfortunes Mr. B. has invented a new lock, which possesses the desirable property of ‘ bolting and unbolting itself.’ It is difficult, if not impossible without a plate, to convey an idea of it; we shall however attempt it in his own words. ‘ In the first place the whole work of my improved lock is between two plates, and all the centres are doubly supported. The main spring, contrary to the present mode of making it, is extremely open, and has strong double centres going through the two plates, which much increases its strength.

and prevents it's being dragged from the inner plate; the upper part of this spring answers for the hammer instead of the feather spring. In the foot of the hammer is a roller, which works on the top of the main spring, and takes off friction; the back part of the hammer is finished with a curb, and rounded so as to work through a hole, which lets it play on the top of the main spring, and at the same time keeps out the weather. The bottom of the cock is a solid piece of metal made circularly, and in the back part of it are cut the notches (or bents) for the full and half cock. The cock when discharged, strikes on the solid piece of metal projecting inwards, at right angles, from the outside plate; in this solid piece the pan is made, the inner plate shuts close to this, and the whole is boxed up, and can never move from its work; for when stocked, the inner plate comes against the barrel.

‘ On the top and right hand part of the cock, a considerable part of its thickness is cut away; into the bed thus formed falls a very strong flat bolt of nearly double the thickness of the strongest part of the main spring. This bolt drops on a centre, fitted at a considerable distance beyond the back of the cock, in the outside plate; immediately underneath this bed, in which the bolt lies, are cut the notches for the full and half cock, in the solid part of the cock itself. Below the bolt centre, and nearer to the back of the cock, is a fear, which is made in a circular form, and also drops on a centre, there not being a single screw throughout the whole lock. In the front part of the cock is the swivel for the main spring.

‘ I have totally put away that delicate fear spring, which on account of its imperfect action, I have so much complained of; and all the necessary operations for acting on the bolt and fear are performed in the same instant by a single spring; the breadth of this spring is determined by that of the main spring, which also determines the distance of the two plates from each other. This spring is sawed nearly into two; the lower part is broader than the upper, and acts upon the fear; the breadth of the spring is determined by the thickness of the fear itself. The upper part acts at the same instant on the bolt; it is rather larger than the main spring, and is placed to its work in the following manner: a stationary centre is fixed in the outer plate, and which comes through the inner one, a little below and beyond the centres of the main spring.

‘ The left hand of this spring is nearly bent round to form a circular hole to drop on the centre already described. The bolt when in its place, falls into the bed cut for it out of the metal on the top of the cock; so that if the finger is drawn over it, at the same time it is in its place, it is perfectly smooth, and only appears as a part of the real thickness of the cock itself. This spring, which acts in the same instant upon the bolts and fear, is kept to its work by a moveable pin placed behind it, and which goes through the two plates, and is put in or taken out with the greatest facility, only by pressing with the finger on the spring. When the cock is down, the bolt points downward, and remains a little below and beyond the angular point of its bed. The upper part of the spring already described, as sawed nearly in two, comes under the bolt, which it presses forcibly against the angular point of its bed. The lower part of the spring, at the same time presses against the foot of the fear, which it keeps forcing

forcing closely to its work, making it ready to fly into the notch, when the cock is drawn back far enough. Upon attempting to come to the half cock, at the same instant that the bottom spring conducts the fear into the notch for the half cock, the upper spring carries the bolt into its bed: the bolt goes into its place rather before the fear; if any one listens he will distinctly hear that they are separate, but if fifty thousand trials were made to get the fear in before the bolt, it would be found impossible. It is necessary that it should act so, for if the fear was permitted to take hold first, upon hearing it click, many might imagine the bolt had also gone in, and by this means they would be deprived of its security.'

A less complex lock is described in the appendix, and also a contrivance for rendering the flint more certain, by altering it's position, and presenting a new edge to the hammer at pleasure. Three different screens are also hinted at, for preventing the powder from flashing in the mens faces.

We have examined several improved locks. One, invented by a private belonging to the artillery, is so contrived, as to be fitted into the stock by a simple application, without the use of a single screw.

Another, the production of an ensign of foot, measures out the priming, by means of a roller every time the piece is cocked; the hammer is also shut down, priming procured, and full cock attained, with a single motion, by means of a simple lever.

A third, termed the prussian gun, primes itself from the charge by means of a conical touch-hole, and has a rammer with a button at each end, which renders four distinct motions unnecessary. We also understand, that the elder capt. Morris has made a very great improvement on the soldier's musket, which promises to be efficacious on account of it's simplicity.

s.

THEOLOGY.

ART. XXII. *Sober and serious Reasons for Scepticism, as it concerns revealed Religion. In a Letter to a Friend.* By John Hollis, Esq. 8vo. 37 pages. Price 1s. Johnson. 1796.

THIS pamphlet, though a direct attack upon the received system of religious belief, bears strong marks of honesty, candour, and modesty. The writer complains, that many persons, who have sufficient liberality to permit others to *think* freely on all subjects, do not, however, approve of their publishing all their thoughts. This timid caution he justly conceives to be a departure from the general principle of the right of free inquiry. It is the opinion of many persons, that *most* things should be brought before the public, in order to their being properly estimated; we agree with this writer in thinking so of *all* things of importance, in which the public is concerned. It is a poor compliment to revelation, to discourage the full and open examination of it's evidence.

Mr. H. does not undertake a general review of the grounds of the christian religion, but merely states some considerations, which constrain him, on this subject, to become a sceptic. His principal difficulty arises from what he conceives to be an irreconcileable difference

ference between the doctrine of christianity, and rational ideas of the divine benevolence, and of a future state. Adopting the doctrine of philosophical necessity, the author considers the present life, with respect to the whole human race, as a state of moral discipline, intended to conduct them ultimately to virtue and happiness. Any other view of the general system he conceives to be inconsistent with the justice and benevolence of the Deity. Contrary to his former opinion, he now thinks the doctrine of the New Testament concerning future punishment, whether strictly eternal, or not, inconsistent with the comfortable notion, that God is equally the father and friend of all his creatures: and he conceives, that philosophical christians have not succeeded in their attempts to reconcile the language of Scripture with their theory of natural religion.

The author of this Letter is not satisfied with the refutations which have been given of the objection against the Old Testament from the history of the extermination of the canaanites. In reply to bishop Watson he remarks, that this extermination differed essentially from a natural calamity, in being inflicted as a punishment; that God is related to have inflicted this punishment upon the innocent infants of the canaanites, whom, upon the supposition of a miraculous interposition, it was easy to have distinguished from the guilty. The impression which such a commission would make upon the minds of the israelites, Mr. H. thinks, would be very pernicious, as it would teach them, that it belonged to the governor and judge of the world to inflict cruel and unjust punishment. 'It is hard,' adds he, 'to persuade one, that the staining their hands in the blood of infants, would be likely to teach them humanity: in reality, it does not appear, from their history, that they possessed much of this virtue; and it is particularly worthy of notice, that they were not even preserved from the very worst crimes of the exterminated nations.'—On the order for exterminating the amalekites, 1 Sam. xv, 2, 3, it is remarked, that the wickedness of the amalekites is not assigned as the reason for their destruction, but the charge in effect is, that their fathers took up arms against their invaders, for which the next generation, both man and woman, infant and suckling, ox and sheep, camel and ass, were ordered to be slain. Compare Exod. xvii, ult.

In the very notion of miracles and revelation, Mr H. finds great difficulties. It seems to him 'a thing, if not absolutely incredible, yet very hard to believe, that the venerable author of universal nature, after having established the general order, and the laws, by which all natural events are brought to pass, should find it necessary to break in upon that order, and those laws, for the accomplishment of his designs. p. 25.

'The idea of God, in most men's minds, is a very different thing from that conceived by a philosopher habituated to contemplate the universe. What can such a contemplative man think, when he reads of personal visits from the infinite and eternal Deity to the man Abraham, and the colloquial discourse which passed on those occasions? Let any reflecting person read what is related in the 20th chapter of Genesis, concerning Abraham, Sarah, and Abimelech

melech the king of Gerar; and the account of what God is represented as speaking, in a vision, to Abimelech; likewise the account of the miraculous punishment inflicted on the female part of Abimelech's family: and then let him declare soberly how he is impressed by the narrative. I am no scoffer: but I do not wonder at Mr. Voltaire's scoffing. Independently, however, of the objection to this story, and the morality of it, can it appear at all probable, that such personal conferences should have taken place between the *Author of the universe* and *Abraham or Moses* as those recorded? I inquire not how probable such things may be in the estimation of ordinary men, but in that of intelligent and reflecting persons.'

Though Mr. H. thinks miraculous interposition antecedently improbable, he does not, however, affirm it to be absolutely incredible. He acknowledges the force of the argument for the truth of the christian revelation derived from the testimony of the apostles, taken together with their subsequent behaviour and persecutions; and admits that, if the miracles were not true, and if the apostles were competent judges of their truth, their conduct, and success, are altogether unaccountable. But he asks, whether this argument can support the truth of christianity, without sanctioning the morality and the doctrines of the Old and New Testament; and he thinks it more reasonable to acquiesce in his ignorance of the causes of the conduct of the apostles, than to receive a moral system in any particular false and pernicious, or to believe that God has given the seal of his authority to a doctrine, which represents him as having created beings in order to make them miserable. Mr. H. concludes in terms strongly expressive of a pious and upright disposition: p. 36.

' In this state of mind, and at my time of life, it is probable that my habits and my conduct will remain nearly such as they have been. With respect to one article, nevertheless, I shall cease to do as I have done. I shall no longer (at least till I am better informed) by a solemn and public act declare myself to be a christian: because I would not do it, either by word or deed, in private conversation. Yet I am not aware of any thing which should hinder me from rejoicing in the fatherly goodness of God; I know of nothing which should hinder me from contemplating, with delight, his benevolent providence, without which "not a sparrow falls to the ground;" or even from lifting up my heart to him, with humble confidence, as to the original and genuine source of all that is excellent and good. Perhaps, too, my christian friends will permit me, when the melancholy scenes of human calamity force my attention, to console myself with the reviving hope

— " That this dark state,
In wayward passions lost and vain pursuits,
This *infancy* of being, cannot prove
The *final issue* of the works of God." THOMSON.'

Fidelity to our office has obliged us to report the substance of these letters: some of Mr. H.'s learned friends will, doubtless, hasten to correct his misapprehensions, and refute his objections.

ART.

ART. XXIII. *An Answer to the Question, Why are you a Christian?*
By John Clarke, Minister of a Church in Boston. 2d Edition.
Small 12mo. 72 pages. Price 1s. boards. Johnson. 1796.

In order to counteract the impressions of deistical writings, summary views of the evidences of Christianity have at different times been published, in a concise and cheap form, for general circulation. Of this kind was a popular pamphlet, which, at the time when Tindal, Toland, Collins, and others, made their united attacks on revelation, appeared under the title of *Plain Reasons for being a Christian*. Of the same kind, too, was a small but valuable publication of Dr. Doddridge, containing three sermons on the *Evidences of Christianity*. Renewed attacks, of course, give birth to new defences: and, as a general caveat against infidelity, easily purchased and soon read, this piece very properly makes its appearance at the present time. The writer states the proofs of the divine origin of Christianity, under the four heads of, the internal evidence arising from the nature of its doctrines and precepts, its early and extensive propagation, the completion of prophecies, and the character and miracles of Christ. In so small a tract, on a question, which, thoroughly examined, necessarily involves historical and critical discussions, much must be taken for granted; but the piece is written with perspicuity and spirit, and is very well adapted to popular use.

ART. XXIV. *A Caution to Young Persons against Infidelity. A Sermon preached in the Unitarian Chapel, in Essex-Street, London; Sunday, April 3, 1796.* By John Disney, D. D. F. S. A. 8vo. 20 pages. Price 6d. Johnson. 1796.

IT is not so much the intention of Dr. D., in this sermon, to refute the objections against revelation, as to caution young persons against a precipitate judgment on a subject of so great importance. The Dr., whose candour will not allow him to ascribe every disposition towards scepticism to depravity of heart, acknowledges, that ' it is very difficult to say, with precision, from what cause, or what combination of causes, young men, otherwise virtuous, become unbelievers:' he thinks it probable, however, that the fact is to be, in part, ascribed to a misapprehension of the nature of historical evidence, and to a reluctance to allow a progression of revelation to an all-wise and all-powerful being. While Dr. D. admits in its full extent the right of free inquiry, he very properly censures the rashness of pronouncing hastily on the measures of infinite wisdom, and calls upon young persons to consider, that ' a precipitate judgment must be a premature one; and that a premature judgment will lay the foundation of a prejudice fatal to an honest verdict.'

' All that is now asked of young persons,' says the Dr., p. 18, ' is the suspension of their judgment, in order that they may do justice to themselves, without requiring them to give up one rational or innocent pleasure, in which their years may lead them to partake. Ask these ingenuous youths whether, when they are advanced only a few leagues on their foreign travel, they would presume to write a correct account of the government, laws, manufactures, commerce, naval and military strength of another country, through which they are passing; or, if they

they should, whether any attention would be given to their judgment or testimony? and they will tell you, they would not risk or attempt, a communication which would instantly be denounced as founded in incompetence and presumption. No; they would in the first place crave time, and employ that time in inquiring, examining, reading, considering and re-considering the character of its inhabitants, the constitution of its legislature, the spirit of its laws, the nature and situation of its manufactures and commerce, together with its internal resources and external aids, before they would expect any attention to be given to their opinion.

Now, shall all this inquiry and consideration be necessary in an ordinary report of the political state and situation of any country in the world, and the great question of the credibility of the revelation of the will of God, be determined without thought, without reflection, and be made the object of sportive contempt by boys, or of wit, cavil, or quibble by immatured men?

Human authorities are readily admitted to be of little weight, where serious discussion has had fair play. But when we are told that Newton declared, "he found more sure marks of authenticity in the Bible, than in any profane history whatever;" and that Locke hath further assured us, that the "New Testament had God for its author; salvation for its end; and truth, without any mixture of error, for its matter;" we may reasonably expect that a modest deference to such men as these would prevail on ingenuous youth not haphazard to decide against their deliberate opinion.

More than this is not required of them, and this concession, which is natural to the uncorrupted sentiments of the young mind, is asked for the sake of the young persons themselves. If our religion be of God, (and we profess to be so persuaded;) all the powers of this world combined together cannot finally overthrow the rational faith of the Gospel. We need not, therefore, be alarmed if an army of adventurers were to arise to attack our citadel; but we may be permitted, disinterestedly, so to feel for the temerity of youth, as to caution them against being deluded by futile remarks, or deceived by pretenders to wisdom above what is written.'

The caution conveyed in this discourse is certainly important; and it is delivered with a degree of urbanity, which entitles it to respectful attention.—A verbal inaccuracy occurs in this sermon, which we must not overlook. Speaking of young men of the present, in comparison with those of former times, the Dr. says: "most probably, *both* they and their predecessors are on an equality in this respect." The word *both* is here not only superfluous, but destroys the sense.

ART. XXXV. *The Benefits of Christianity contrasted with the pernicious Influence of Modern Philosophy upon Civil Society; being a Sermon, on a Day of Thanksgiving for the providential Escape of his Majesty from the late atrocious Outrage on his sacred Person. Preached at Quebec Chapel, Portman-Square. By the Rev. Dr. T. B. Clarke. 8vo. 24 pages. Price 1s. Reed. 1796.*

A more flimsy piece of declamation than this sermon we have seldom met with: it unites a finical affectation of smart language, with a pitiful tenuity of thought. In haranguing against the philosophy

philosophy of *to-day*,' the orator undertakes to prove, that it rises upon 'a three-fold basis of corruption; a vain spirit of singularity; a diminutive sentiment of pride; and a principle of interest, despair, and prejudice.' Of the *pretty* style of this sermon, the following passage will be a sufficient specimen. Speaking of a modern infidel, the Dr says:

P. 10. 'Propose to him the ravings and vain fantasies of some new philosopher, who would regulate the world according to his whims, there is what this grand genius, this soaring disciple of modern philosophy, meditates profoundly; what he maintains obstinately, and to what he would die a martyr. If the sons of genius be indeed amongst those men, the brightness of their intelligence is dimmed to us; we see it across the tears of religion. We wish however to pay a tribute even to the claims upon superior intellect: yet here, alas, it must be to deplore its instability or submissive credulity. But if these men have not wholly lost the exalted distinctions of mind, and be not chained as it were by the chimeras of madness, we shall invoke their attention.'

The conclusion is a fulsome offering of adulation to the king, accompanied with a prayer *demanding* for him salvation of the Almighty, and requesting, that, in return for his being the defender of the faith, 'the fund of religion engraven on his soul may be enlarged.'—We have taken the more notice of this discourse, which has been published 'in obedience to the solicitude of some requests,' because it is offered to the public as a declaration of hostilities against modern philosophy, and is accompanied with an intimation, that the author may, *at a future moment*, lay before the world a more extensive view of the subject.—The world will, doubtless, expect with impatience the fulfilment of this promise.

ART. XXVI. *A Conscience void of Offence. A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, January 17, 1796, (with an Analysis of it, as a Supplement to the Volume of Skeletons just published)* by the Rev. Charles Simeon, M. A. Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 16 pages.

THIS plain, practical discourse seems only printed for the purpose of exemplifying, in the analysis annexed, the author's method of drawing out the plan, or sketch of a sermon. The volume of skeletons, of which this analysis is a specimen, has not yet fallen in our way.

ART. XXVII. *For the Benefit of the Fund towards erecting the Free-church in Bath. A Sermon, recommending Frugal and Oeconomical Management in Articles of Subsistence.* By John Methuen Rogers, L. L. B. Rector of Berkeley, Somerset. 4to. 23 pages. Price 1s. Bath, Hazard; London, Rivingtons. 1796.

THIS sermon, preached during the time of, what we are happy to call, the *late* scarcity, is well written, and ingeniously adapted to the occasion. In recommending oeconomy, the preacher insists pretty largely on the necessity of using a mixture of other grain, particularly barley, with wheat. He is very fortunate in supporting his recommendation of barley-bread by scriptural authority. Find-

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ing it recorded, that our Saviour multiplied five *barley* loaves to feed five thousand mouths, he infers, that bread made wholly of barley was at that time in common use, and concludes, that since the barley-loaves were not, in the miracle, converted into wheaten bread, barley bread must be wholesome and nourishing. Other arguments, if less novel, perhaps not less convincing, are suggested to recommend a frugal and oeconomical management of the articles of subsistence. In a discourse, the style of which is in general unaffected, we were surprised to meet with so very quaint an expression as, ‘nature the handmaid of God.’

ART. XXVIII. *A Sermon on Alms.* By Samuel Charters, D. D. Minister of Wilton. The Third Edition. 12mo. 130 pages. Price 1s. Edinburgh, Bell; London, Johnson. 1795.

THE republication of this practical sermon may be useful, not merely as a stimulant to benevolence, but as a guide to the distribution of charity. In the discourse itself, and in the notes annexed, several judicious hints on this subject are suggested.

ART. XXIX. *To reduce the Consumption of Wheaten Flour: A Sermon, preached at Camberwell Chapel, on the 7th of February, 1796.* By the Rev. Thomas Sampson, A. M. F. A. S. Preacher at the said Chapel. 8vo. 18 pages. Price 1s. Lowndes.

THE general doctrine of our dependence on divine Providence for the sustenance of life is in this sermon established by obvious arguments, and applied in a plain exhortation to pious gratitude, and to a charitable use of the gifts of heaven. If there be little to admire in the discourse, there is little to censure. The conclusion is an echo of the *episcopal* advice to reduce the consumption of wheaten flour; advice, the necessity of which is happily superseded by a fall in the price of corn, as sudden and extraordinary as had been its rise.

ART. XXX. *A Wonderful Sermon; or, Truth undisguised, to be preached on the Fast-day, by Ebenezer Verax; with suitable Hymns, a Proclamation, and Petition to his Majesty.* 8vo. 24 pages. Price 6d. Eaton. 1796.

Is there be in this wonderful sermon some undisguised truth, there is much rudeness, little wit, and no piety.

ART. XXXI. *A particular Enquiry into the Doctrine of an Eternal Filiation: being a Sequel to the Appeal to the New Testament, in Proof of the Divinity of the Son of God.* By Charles Hawtrey, M. A. Vicar of Bampton, Oxfordshire. 8vo. 102 pages. Price 2s. Rivingtons. 1796.

ETERNAL filiation! eternal generation! What ideas is it possible for any human understanding to annex to such terms? yet these words, and others equally unintelligible, have for ages furnished matter of contention to learned theologians; and, even after the long experience which the world has had of the inutility—of the perfect inanity—of these controversies, learned theologians, at the close

close of the eighteenth century, are still disputing concerning the eternal generation, and the eternal filiation of the Son of God. The author of the "Appeal to the New Testament in proof of the Divinity of the Son of God," a work which will not permit the slightest suspicion to fall upon his orthodoxy, writes a tract to refute the notion, or, more accurately, the proposition, that the eternal Father from all eternity generated a Son in his own divine nature; and to show, that the Scripture teaches no other doctrine concerning the filiation of Christ, than that, on account of his incarnation by the power of the Holy Ghost, he is the only begotten Son of God. Upon a question, the terms of which it is impossible to define, we shall not be expected to enter into particulars; we shall only remark, in general, that the author appears to have studied it carefully, and writes as clearly as was to be expected on a doctrine, of which he admits the difficulty of conceiving any idea. Mr. H. is sensible, that his argument contradicts the obvious interpretation of the clause in the Nicene Creed, 'begotten of the Father before all worlds'; but he conceives, that these words may be understood as referring to the eternal purpose of the divine mind; and that this sense may be admitted without prevarication, even though it should not have been the sense intended by the framers of the creed;—a latitude of interpretation, which would enable both arians and socinians, *without prevarication*, to enter the church through the narrow door of clerical subscription.

POLITICS.

ART. XXXII. *The Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance.*
By Thomas Payne, Author of Common Sense, &c. 8vo. 44 pages.
Price 1s. Paris printed, reprinted in London for Eaton. 1796.

BY the English System of Finance, Mr. P. means the system of funding, by which Britain is at present loaded with an enormous public debt, together with that expedient in the modern art of banking, which has substituted a large mass of promissory notes, or paper money, instead of the coin, or metallic money, formerly used in the circulation of commercial value. We will not make any remark on the inaccuracy of terming either of these systems English; since their merit or demerit, in point of invention, lies indubitably with foreigners; but shall proceed to give a correct analysis of his treatise.

Mr. P. begins his work by asserting, that every system of credit is a system of paper money. He affirms, that the English system differs from that of the paper dollars of America, and the assignats of France, in one particular only, namely, that the capital does not appear in circulation. Hence he deduces, that the accumulation of paper money in England is only proportioned to the amount of the interest of that capital; and that, if the interest be taken at five per cent, it will require twenty years to elapse before the same destructive inconvenience would follow on the funding system, as was produced by one year by that of the paper dollars, or assignats. In a word, that the latter systems verged speedily to their ruin, and the system of funding will as inevitably experience the same fate in the course of a term twenty times as long.

In the next place, our author proceeds to examine what he calls the symptoms of decay in the system of funding upon interest. They are exhibited in the progressive increase of the national debt, from the expenses of the five wars preceding that in which we are now unhappily engaged. He finds that the sums expended in each were nearly in geometrical progression, increasing by the common ratio $1\frac{1}{2}$. So that each successive total is once and a half the amount of the preceding, as follows:

First war	—	National debt 21 millions.
Second	—	Additional 33
Third	—	Ditto 48
Fourth	—	Ditto 72
Fifth	—	Ditto 108

From these he goes on to ascertain by computation the expenses of wars to come, as under:

Present war, or sixth	—	162
Seventh	—	243
Eighth	—	364
Ninth	—	546
Tenth	—	819
Eleventh	—	1228
Twelfth	—	1842

At which period our national debt is expected to be 5486 millions of pounds sterling!

As it became in some measure incumbent upon Mr. P. (after having assumed this ratio from the first five terms) to show the principles from which it may arise, he adverts, in the next place, to the apparent rise in price of all commodities in America and France, during the operation of their systems of paper money, which, in fact, consisted chiefly in the diminished value, or plenty, of the medium of circulation only. He affirms, that the funding system also threw paper into circulation, which had a similar effect, and consequently, that the difference between one war costing 21 millions, and another 160 millions, is likewise merely nominal, or relative to the circulating medium.

Thus far the notes of the bank have remained unnoticed, and are only once incidentally mentioned. But in the subsequent part of his pamphlet, the author makes them the leading object of his remarks. He takes notice, that all the taxes are paid in bank notes, and that there is not money enough in the bank to pay these notes; that the coin actually in the kingdom is about twenty millions; that government became insolvent as soon as the money of the nation was insufficient to liquidate all the notes in which the interest of the public debt is paid; that the discounts of the bank amount to above four millions annually, which are effected by changing their paper for other paper, namely, bills of exchange; that the deposits of those who keep cash at the bank, being made in paper, add nothing to the ability of the bank to give money for their own notes when presented; and lastly, that the corporation of the bank, by acting as bankers for government, with which they are asserted (by our author) to have a mysterious, suspicious connexion, has overstocked the market with paper money, to the amount, as he estimates, of sixty millions.

In the course of this discussion, Mr. P., under the common error of taking money or coin, either effectively or by representation, for the whole property of a nation, affirms that the limit of possibility to

wring taxes from a people is proportioned to the quantity of money they possess. He states it at one fourth part; and from these positions it is, that he deduces the above sixty millions of bank notes, asserted to be in circulation; that is to say, since the taxes amount to twenty millions, the currency must be eighty millions; but of this only twenty millions are coin; the remainder therefore, says he, consists of bank notes, namely, sixty millions.

By some fallacy, which does not clearly appear, the author is led to overlook the corporation of traders, and confounding the bank with the government, he asserts, that these sixty millions are also national debt, which has been delusively and fraudulently incurred to pay the interest of the funded debt. He considers the latter debt as a trifle in its consequences, compared with that of the notes payable on demand; and concludes his work by congratulating himself on the just vengeance he has taken for America and France, in exposing the system of an oppressor and enemy, on the verge, and even in the gulph of bankruptcy.

In the foregoing account of Mr. P.'s pamphlet, we have endeavoured with conciseness to select those statements or deductions which are presented as matter of fact, and compose it's essential parts. To have amplified them, or to have conveyed his argumentative processes entire, would have required little less than a copy of the whole pamphlet. The enlightened politician will easily perceive how far Mr. P. is acquainted with the nature of that capital, whether real or imaginary, which he has attempted to exhibit, in it's assignment and progress; and also in what degree he is at present qualified to appreciate the various mediums of circulation in all their extended relations. Our immediate purpose does not lead us to discuss these great national and mercantile objects; and we will not give an opinion where we cannot state our reasons. We shall therefore conclude by remarking, that Mr. P. has yet much to learn on these subjects.

v.

ART. XXXIII. *An Inquiry into the State of the Finances of Great Britain; in answer to Mr. Morgan's Facts.* By Nicholas Vattart, Esq. 8vo. 75 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Owen. 1796.

THE science of arithmetic is boasted of, as being precise, accurate, and certain; and yet it so happens, that in the hands of a financier it appears to be vague and indefinite. This was seen, in an eminent degree, during the contest between Necker and Calonne, relative to the revenue and expenditure of France. In England, Mr. Pitt and Mr. Sheridan, two of our ablest orators, have frequently disputed, before the gigantic ruin of the present disastrous war rendered the subject too trivial for investigation, whether the balance of an *annual million* ought to be put to the debtor or creditor side of the national account. The present times afford a new instance of a similar contest, but unhappily for us, the question is not concerning our prosperity but our ruin; and while both parties allow the pressure of public calamity, the only doubt is as to it's extent.

Mr. M., in one of the ablest pamphlets that the present day has produced, estimates the debt incurred by the war at more than 101,504,044l., bearing an interest of 3,740,360l., exclusive of the emperor's loan of three millions; he at the same time calculates the

the national debt at 360,228,201., paying for interest and management 13,020,993l. [See Analyt. Rev. p. 193 of the present vol.] Mr. V., the author of the pamphlet before us, denies some, controverts many, and opposes all Mr. M.'s positions. He allows, however, that the expenses of war, like all other expenses, have increased, and if his remark be just—and we are inclined to think it so—that naval stores are upwards of 35 per cent higher than during the american war, and victualling stores have risen still more; this, together with an additional 15 per cent on ship-building, will account in some measure for the amazing extent of the navy debt, but it will at the same time go towards substantiating Mr. M.'s assertion relative to the increased expence of this war, above every other.

The following account of the expenses of the present contest will show, that there is a difference of more than thirty millions, between Mr. M.'s and Mr. V.'s statement of the debt incurred on the occasion: p. 14.

• The money raised by loans during the war,	} £.51,500,000
amounts to	
• The navy debt funded in 1794 and 1795	3,536,422
• Navy debt about to be funded	— 5,000,000
• Further increase of navy debt	— 1,500,000
• Expected increase of ditto within the year	— 2,500,000
• Increase of exchequer bills	— 500,000
	—
• Allow for possible excess, for contingencies, and	64,536,422
extraordinaries, to 31st December, 1796	} 5,463,578
	—
	£.70,000,000

By referring to a different period of four years from that recurred to by Mr. M., the loans made by the present ministry are taught to assume a far more favourable aspect than those of lord North's administration. As to the total of the public debt, it is here lessened by the sum of forty millions, and upwards.

p. 20. ' The general account of the funded debt on the 5th of January, 1796, without making any deduction for what has been purchased by the commissioners for reducing the national debt, amounts to

	Principal.	Interest.	Management.
• Stock created before Jan. 5, 1784.	£.211,363,254	7,937,231	— 107,824
• Between Jan. 5, 1784, and Jan. 5, 1788.	26,867,993	1,209,939	— 12,950
• Since Jan. 5, 1788.	47,536,423	2,284,209	— 25,204
• In 1796 *	26,100,000	783,000	— 11,745
	—	—	—
	£.311,867,670	— 12,214,379	— 157,723

** There is no account of this yet in the Exchequer, but it must be nearly as here stated.'

To the above sum of 311,847,670l. stated to be the amount of the national debt, (exclusive of the annuities, &c.) Mr. V. adds five millions of navy debt provided for, but not yet funded; 500,000l. increase in exchequer-bills; 1,500,000l. navy debt already incurred; and 2,500,000l. estimated for the expenses of the present year, 'which,' according to him, 'will complete the view of the public incumbrances beyond the floating debt in time of peace, except as far as any increase may arise from the extraordinary expenses not yet ascertained.' This is rather a lax mode of expression; indeed, our public debt has become so enormous, that a few millions more or less are considered but as 'dust in the balance.' besides, the minister's *second budget* for 1796 has rendered this statement exceedingly equivocal, and it must now be confessed, that the account before us is rather flattering than correct.

The following is another calculation, in which the author differs essentially from Mr. M.

• The total capital of the debt is	£ 311,867,670
• Value of the annuities according to Mr. M.	24,730,269
• Unfunded debt, including what is expected } within the year	9,500,000
	—————
• Stock redeemed by the commissioners	346,097,939
	18,001,655
	—————
	£ 328,096,284

Mr. M. states the sum redeemed since 1786, at 17½ millions only; it is here said to be 18 millions and upwards. This, however, is trifling in comparison to what follows: 'but the great difference [no less than fifty millions] arises,' adds Mr. V., 'from his [Mr. M.'s] converting sixty-three millions of five and four per cents and near 1,700,000l. a year in annuities, at one stroke into 3 per cent stock.' We have in vain searched for the detection of this supposed fallacy; and must freely confess, that 'the dreadful phantom conjured up' by Mr. M. ought still to terrify all thinking men, until some abler 'clerk' be called in to *lay the ghost*.

It is impossible without a smile, bordering on contempt, to behold the very exaggerated account of the exhausted state of the french finances. The expenses of the republic are stated, in p. 47, at eighty millions sterling a year, and the *real* value of the assignats, at upwards of 200,000,000 sterling. Mr. de Calonne and Mr. d'Ivernois have been at issue on this point; and it is an incontrovertible fact, that, about the time the present pamphlet was published, the whole of the assignats, in consequence of their rapid depreciation, might have been cancelled for less than six millions sterling. *Ex uno disce omnes.*

There are some interesting particulars, in Mr. M.'s tract, relative to which Mr. V. has declined an answer. The first is, the increased amount of the secret service money, which in the course of the last year was no less than 151,000l. The second relates to the inference to be drawn from the slow decrease of the national

onal debt, which, in the space of ten years, has been lessened, by one operation of finance, about ten-pence in the pound,—according to Mr. V. almost one shilling,—while by another it has been increased upwards of eight shillings.—The third, respects our future prospects—it has been asserted, and the assertion is not here controverted, that peace and economy for the space of the next forty years would only reduce the account to one hundred and fifty millions: on the other hand, it is but fair to state, that Mr. M. is here charged with having omitted all mention of the additional *one per cent.*, provided in the new loans, towards extinguishing the capital of the stock created.

We shall take our leave of this pamphlet, after transcribing the concluding remark, which must be highly consolatory to such as are satisfied with the premises on which it is founded.

‘ From all these circumstances, I cannot avoid drawing the conclusion, that amidst all the alarms and difficulties of so terrible a warfare, the prosperity of the country has not materially suffered; however we may regret the necessity which forced us unavoidably into the contest, and now compels us to the continuance of it. But surely it will ever be remembered among the most signal blessings which have attended this favoured isle, that in a time like the present, we are able to look for peace with confidence, or for war without alarm. History will record the events of the struggle, in which Great Britain has repelled the gigantic efforts of the modern vandals, armed with all the arts of destruction, and inflamed with the spirit of universal desolation. And future statesmen will investigate the causes which enabled her, without exhausting her ordinary resources, to withstand an enemy, who, casting away every idea of self-preservation, consumed his own vitals in his efforts to annoy the foe.’

ART. XXXIV. *Essay on the Public Merits of Mr. Pitt.* By Thomas Beddoes, M.D. 8vo, 201 pages. Price 3s. 6d. Johnson. 1796.

DR. BEDDOES, in vindicating his right to political discussion, exerts but one of the acknowledged privileges of a freeman, and recollects that he was a citizen before he became a physician. He indeed proves, that, in the latter character, frequent opportunities occur of acquiring an intimate knowledge of the ills that attend misgovernment; for he justly observes, that ‘a large portion of human misery passes under close medical inspection,’ and very pertinently asks, ‘among its possible causes, may not some be political?’

‘ It is evident,’ adds he, ‘ that medical knowledge comprises the powers that produce good or evil. For what are temporal good and evil, but the sense of painful and pleasurable sensations felt during life? Political knowledge is no other than the knowledge of institutions, productive of good and evil. Nor is it possible to promote the welfare of those collections of individuals, which we denominate nations, without understanding what things affect man painfully, and what pleasurable.’

After some observations on the discovery of the advantages resulting from the marine acid by Mr. Morveau, of Dijon, in 1773.

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and the adoption of this preventive in the military hospitals of the republic, the Dr. exhibits a political catechism, many queries in which can be better answered by professional men, than any others.

He then laments, and with great justice, that while the names of Wolfe and Rodney are known to every body, those of less splendid, but more useful men, who have been the authors of inventions beneficial to the human species, are never heard of. Howard indeed, owing perhaps more to a daring spirit of adventure, than any thing else, continues to receive well-merited eulogiums, but Benjamin Colborne, another philanthropist of our own age and country, lived unhonoured, and died unlamented.

In chap. ii, we have a rapid sketch of the disasters of the American war, the expenses of which, according to one of our most celebrated philosophers, ' would have been sufficient to join England to Ireland, by a mole a quarter of a mile in breadth.' We find from an ' anti-ministerial invective' of a former day, here put into verse, that there may be a wonderful coincidence between distant times and events :

" Let slip the dogs of war," the premier said,
Each skip-jack peer inclin'd his supple head.
For North his commons passed the ready vote,
To North the preacher lent his liquid throat.
Masked in unspotted lawn, with solemn breath
The fawning bishop bless'd the works of death.
Handmaid of State,' &c.

In Chap. iii, the birth, education, rise, and promising progress of the *hero* are touched upon, and, upon more than one occasion, we perceive an attempt to treat William Pitt, all illustrious and powerful as he is, in the same manner that Jonathan Wild, of notorious memory, was handled by one of our best caricaturists. Messrs. Wilberforce, Banks, and several others of his companions, are all treated as so many accessories *after the fact*.

In chap. iv, the hero, who was a patriot before, now becomes reformer, and the very ' Hotspur of innovation.' ' He sat in council with delegates from different bodies of petitioners for a change in the representation. The parliamentary patriots of that hour industriously distributed hand bills, calling upon the people to assert themselves*; and we know on the authority of lord Lansdown, who it was that in private declared the reform of the house of commons to be a cause in which loss of office ought to be risqued. It would be tedious to tell, if it were possible to collect, all Mr. Pitt did to effect this darling purpose. It appears from his own oath, that he did more than he now remembers, though it was so important an æra of his life, and at that age the faculties are so retentive.'

* On the 16th of May, 1782, the duke of Richmond, seconded by Mr. H. Tooke and Mr. Pitt, was sitting in a tavern, composing advertisements of reform for the newspapers. ' Pol. Prog. of Britain,' p. 33.

The hero, in chap. v, arrives at the very acme of honour and glory, and actually lays out 3000l. a year, (the clerkship of the rolls,) in buying an additional stock of popular favour. 'I despair,' says the uncourtly biographer, 'of finding terms adequate to the sanguine hopes of the people. It is moderate to assert, that neither Scipio, when he had delivered Rome from her most formidable rival, nor Washington the founder of american independence, received more enthusiastic adoration, than the political adventurer whose patriotism rested on the same blustering evidence as Bobadil's valour.'

Dr. B. next alludes to the formation of the board of control, and expresses himself on that occasion in the following manner: 'In 1783, there was published a caricature representing Karlo Khan making his triumphal entry, on a prodigious elephant, into Leaden-hall-street. In 1788, the pencil of truth might have sketched Gulielmo Vizir, at the head of his indian dependants, fapping the last hold of public virtue. That hold has surrendered. The citizens of London are dragged captive at the conqueror's car. The state-catinels, who used to give the alarm in times of public danger, and protest against public injustice, are henceforward doomed to silence; nor will they again dare utter

"Word unpleasing to the courtier's ear."

From Hindostan, where by a single act, deemed justifiable alike by the perpetrator and his employers, 'a whole people may be uprooted from its seat, and a whole region converted into a jungle for wild beasts,' the author recurs to a more pleasing scene, the commercial treaty with France, which has been characterised, by a statesman deeply skilled in political œconomy, as 'the æra of protestantism in trade.' The liberality of opinion prevalent at this period is principally attributed to the writings of Tucker, Hume, and Smith.

The commercial transactions with America do not meet with the same applause, and the conduct of Mr. Jenkinson, now lord Hawkesbury, on that occasion, experiences but little commendation. The effect on our west indian islands, by the restrictions suggested in his bill, is described as melancholy in the extreme, and it is not without horrour we learn from Bryan Edwards's history of the West Indies, (B. vi, Ch. 4,) that from downright famine, or insufficient nourishment, there perished in the course of six years, in Jamaica alone, not less than 15,000 negroes.

The folly of attributing that prosperity on the peace to the minister, for which we were indebted to our immense capitals and proverbial industry alone, is justly ridiculed, and the following apposite little story is given by way of elucidation.

'In the reign of queen Elizabeth, there lived at the end of a small village in South Wales, an old woman who gained her livelihood by going on errands to Brecknock. She stooped; her last remaining front tooth projected into view; she was blind of one eye, and blear of the other. Such a figure could not fail to set surmises afloat. One evening she was met by a furious blast on her return home. Next morning her better eye was so much afflicted

afflicted by a violent rheum, that she was forced to keep close in her cottage for some time. Meanwhile news arrives of the disaster of the Spanish fleet. In the ardour of speculation it occurs, that the old woman had not lately been seen at her usual houses of call; and it is soon discovered, that she had not appeared out of her own doors. "Aye, aye," said the politicians of Brecknock, we thought, sure enough, all along, there was something in it! Old Margery has not kept herself pent up all this while for nothing. These hurricanes were certainly of her raising. It is the cunning woman —the cunning woman of Llanbamlog, that has done for the *papishes!*"

In a future publication, Dr. B. intends to exhibit Mr. P., whom he seems to consider at one and the same time as his *patient and his hero*, in the character of a 'war minister.'

ART. XXXV. *The Correspondence of the Rev. C. Wyvill with the Right Honourable William Pitt. Part I.* Published by Mr. Wyvill. 8vo. 98 pages. Price 2s. Johnson. 1796.

WE have already noticed several of Mr. W.'s political tracts [see Analytical Rev. vol. xviii, p. 82, and vol. xx, p. 308.], and given our opinion on the spirit and integrity of the author, who, amidst a corrupt and degenerate age, has hitherto constantly maintained an uniform independency. The pamphlet now before us affords the fairest opportunity for estimating the rectitude of the present chancellor of the exchequer; such, therefore, as have any doubts respecting the inconsistency of his principles, or the perversion of his talents, may now canvas and decide on his conduct.

Paper 1. This contains the substance of Mr. W.'s conversation with Mr. Pitt, on the 5th of May, 1783. Mr. Pitt here appears zealous: 1. for preventing bribery and expense at elections; 2. for punishing boroughs with disfranchisement, on the conviction of a majority of the electors having been guilty of corruption; and, 3. for adding one hundred members to the representation of the counties, and the metropolis, in the exact ratio of the importance of each. This last proposition was acceded to on the part of Mr. P., in consequence of Mr. W.'s observation, 'that the nation felt the inconvenience arising from the want of foresight in our forefathers, from whose inattention to establish and maintain due proportion in the house of commons, the present complaints of the people arose. That it behoved us, therefore, to pay greater attention to theory than they had done; and to make the distribution with a regard to the importance of the counties.' It was then thought by the chairman of the Yorkshire committee, that the carrying these three propositions into effect, and the repealing of the septennial bill, would prove fully satisfactory, and be considered as a complete attainment of all the purposes of their association.

Paper 11 contains the copy of a letter from the rev. C. Wyvill to the right hon. W. Pitt, dated Knightsbridge, May 23, 1783. This is a grateful acknowledgment of Mr. Pitt's 'generous, though hitherto unsuccessful endeavours to RESTORE THE CONSTITUTION.'

Paper 111 is the substance of a conversation, Feb. 15, 1784, 'in which Mr. P. (then in opposition) declared his determined hostility to his opponents (messrs. Fox, Burke, the duke of Portland, &c.) unless the

the India bill, as calculated to establish a new executive power, was given up.

Papers iv, v, vi, vii, viii, ix, consist of letters from the Rev. C. W. to the right hon. W. P. during the years 1784 and 1785. From these we learn, that Mr. P. not only avowed, but authorized Mr. W. to declare publicly, that he would support the reform in the representation 'both as a minister and a man.' He also invited the assistance of the people, by petitions at *general meetings* ;—assemblies, which he himself has since suppressed.

Paper x is a memorial respecting certain sums vested in the governors of Queen Anne's bounty, and the conditions on which the said sums seem justly applicable to the public service. The total accumulation of this money, appropriated and unappropriated, was estimated in 1785 at 500,000l., and it is here proposed, that this sum, which bears only two per cent interest, should be paid into the exchequer, in virtue of an act of parliament, on the conditions following; to wit:

1. The public faith shall be engaged to pay the interest of the above 500,000l. at the rate of two per cent per annum until Michaelmas next, and from Michaelmas for ever, at the rate of five per cent per annum.

2. That all the benefices in England and Wales under 50l. shall be augmented out of the said interest; and,

3. That the payment of first-fruits and tenths shall be continued only so long as there are any benefices under 50l. per annum.

And, 4. That the augmentation shall be paid half-yearly, by the receivers-general of the respective counties, without fee or deduction. Had the sum alluded to been vested in the 3 per cent fund, it would have afforded an immediate increase of 15l. a year to at least one thousand of the most indigent clergy of the established church.

Papers xi, xii, xiii, xiv, xv, xvi, xvii, xviii, xix. We now discover Mr. P. in power, and acting with more than the accustomed haughtiness and superciliousness of office. 'In the early part of his administration, much had been wisely and bravely done by Mr. P. to repair our shattered finances, and to restore economy and integrity in the expenditure of the public money; and it was then expected by many of his friends, that to complete our internal security by an effectual reformation of parliament, would be the grand object of his political life. He began it as his father had begun *his*, a foe to corruption, a friend to the rights of the people; had he, like him, persevered to the end in his first attachment to the one, and his hereditary hatred to the other, he would have equalled his father in true glory; he would have surpassed him, had he with the same stedfastness adhered to his original system of pacific policy, and like Washington, preserved his country from the calamities of a war with France.'

Mr. W., however, seems still to have entertained hopes, that the minister would recollect his solemn engagements, until the commencement of the present war rendered the idea ridiculous. 'The editor's suspicions were now renewed with increasing force; he grew more and more alarmed; he plainly saw greater and greater reason for it. At last, in the beginning of February, 1793, the violent steps which had been taken, apparently to disgrace and ruin the whole body of reformers, and engage this country in a rash and unnecessary war with France, induced the editor to address an expostulatory letter to Mr. P. on these subjects. The letter was privately sent to him in February, 1793; like the two preceding

preceding letters, it remained unanswered, and in the course of a few weeks it was published. Had Mr. P. deigned to return a satisfactory answer respecting the matters discussed in it, the editor's intention was not to publish it. But his silence, combined with the facts alluded to, appeared, in his judgment, to form a strong presumptive proof that Mr. P. had abandoned the liberal and pacific principles of policy which had rendered the early part of his administration happy and popular, and had adopted a new and dangerous system of FOREIGN WAR and INTERNAL COERCION. Under this persuasion, Mr. W. thought it an indispensable duty to renounce his connection with Mr. P., and to lay this expostulatory letter before the public.'

From paper xx we shall give a quotation containing the political characters of two of the most eminent men of the present day: ' Thomas Paine is unlearned, but nature has given him a strong, though coarse understanding, with much originality of thought, and energy of expression. He is fitted by nature to be a democratic leader; and early prejudice, habit, and a variety of accidental circumstances, confirmed the original tendency of his mind.'

' Edmund Burke has had the advantage of a learned education: his genius is showy, but not solid; copious, but not correct. His judgment is inferior to that of many of his contemporaries; but he unites industry with wit, humour, and a brilliant, though disordered imagination: his elocution is rapid, and well adapted to the sportive or impetuous style of oratory in which he excels; but he is seldom argumentative, and more seldom convincing. Had literature been his professional pursuit, he might have shone through many a volume, a splendid superficial rhetorician, decked in the ornaments of a glittering eloquence, and proud of his tinsel.'

' For philosophical research his faculties are less fit; and in the more abstruse sciences he probably never could have discovered one important truth: but, like Fontenelle, he might have explained what others had invented, and might have embellished the system of Newton with wit, pathos, and all the tinkling trappings of his metaphorical style. But he was doomed to be a politician; and the pride of genius and learning fitted him to be an aristocrat. Early connection with an honoured nobleman, confirmed this natural and acquired tendency; he was at first his dependent; then freed from that servitude by his noble patron's munificence; at his death, he became the counsellor and confidential guide of an alarmed aristocracy. At the period alluded to, the popular societies for reform had received a rapid increase; the grateful zealots of aristocracy trembled with rage and fear at the approaching ruin of their usurpations. But one great effort to save them must be made; and fortunately for his purpose, the excesses of the french revolution held out a consoling hope that the system of abuses might be prolonged, perhaps perpetuated.'

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ART. XXXVI. *Impartial Reflections upon the present Crisis; comprised in four Essays, upon the Economy of the present Stock of Corn: The Affect of Bread: Tithes: and a general System of Inclosures. With an Appendix, containing the System of Inclosures introduced in 1732, by Arthur Dobbs, Esq. in the Irish Parliament. By Harvey, Viscount Mountmorres, F. R. S. and M. R. I. A. 8vo. 60 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Nicol. 1796.*

Nat.

NOTWITHSTANDING the inferiority of Ireland in respect to agriculture, yet we are here told, there is hardly a piece of ground in the island, that can be rendered profitable for pasture, or tillage, that is not fenced and divided, either by ditches, drains, dry walls, or some species of enclosure. The people there are also exempted from the trouble, delay, and expense of enclosure bills, in consequence of the exertions of the late Arthur Dobbs, esq., member of parliament for Carrickfergus, in 1732.

In Essay I, several remedies are suggested to remedy the deficiency of corn; first, economy of the existing stock; secondly, encouragement of future agricultural productions; thirdly, putting the laws in force against regraters, foretallers, &c.; fourthly, a general enclosure bill; fifthly, tilling of wastes, commons, and crown lands; and sixthly, ascertaining a fair equivalent for the tithes of lay and ecclesiastical impro priators.

In essay II, lord M. enforees the necessity, during the present crisis, of 'legalizing only one species of bread composed of the whole heart of the wheat, and of the substance of the hull, or bran also; in a word, of the entire product of the grain, without any unnecessary refinement or subtraction.'

In essay III, he combats the common opinion, that if tithes were abolished or lessened, farmers or tenants would not be benefited thereby, because landlords would raise their rents in proportion.

With due respect for a great authority, (dean Swift's) this specious argument may be thus easily refuted. Landlords usually lease their grounds at a certain rent, for twenty-one years, or a certain term; the tithe impro priator, on the contrary, demands annually a tenth, in proportion to the increased production—or, in plainer terms, if potatoes were produced one year, and pine apples the next; the right to, perhaps, the demand for tithes would be increased accordingly. Thus circumstanced, it must be admitted, that tithe is a demand vexatious from this uncertainty; burthen some to farmers, absorbing the interest of the money expended by tillers and cultivators of the soil—a tax upon that industry which feeds mankind—and demonstrably operating as a bounty on pasturage, to the prejudice of agriculture.

If a farmer were to acquire twenty shillings in the produce of a farm grazed with sheep, the fleece, which may be estimated at five shillings, or a fourth part, would alone be subjected to tithe; and sixpence would be all he would pay to the impro priator. But if he were to gain twenty shillings, by the production of corn, he would be liable to a tithe of two shillings—hence it is evident, that in the first instance, he would pay only sixpence, in the latter case, two shillings—four times as much in one instance as in the other—therefore, tithe operates as a bounty upon pasture, and as a discouragement, and subtraction from agriculture. So many difficulties arise in a fair substitution for tithes, that these common arguments are generally urged:—"inconveniences are acknowledged, but propose your remedies.—Let us not pull down a house, till we have a plan to rebuild the structure." To these specious objections, it may be briefly answered—that what has been done in one county, may probably be effected in another—that

that the Scotch parliament in 1706, established a fair equivalent for tithes, by enabling the court of session to value teinds (as they are called *there*) to raise a contribution from the heritors, or land-holders in each parish, and to allot a permanent fixed stipend, for a pastor in every district. But if this scheme should be deemed a violent innovation elsewhere, where would be the injustice of obliging impro priators to lease their tithes for a term of twenty or thirty years, like landlords in most parts of England, at a fixed rent; and of rendering such leases binding and obligatory, upon future incumbents and their successors? If tithe impro priators were thus obliged to follow the usual practice of landlords, the property of the clergy and the laity would be upon an equal footing; nor would the annual improvement of the farmer, or increasing ingenuity of the cultivator, be subjected to a yearly increase or a greater demand, in proportion to a larger production. These conjectures (for such only they are, and no more, upon an arduous and intricate subject) are sufficient to prove, however, that a beneficial arrangement and substitution for tithe, if it should come under the contemplation, and occupy the thoughts of better and abler informed men, would not be liable to the presumed and imaginary difficulties of a fair equivalent, for this inconvenient mode of providing for the clergy, and the embarrassments of tithe impro priators. To which it may be subjoined—that the cultivation of waste lands; a general inclosure bill; with a fair equivalent for tithes, would form the true and only certain precautions against future scarcity.

‘Tithes are the grand destruction to national improvement, to agricultural amelioration—where the lazy idle drone devours a large portion of the labours of the sedulous insect, and of the product of the industrious bee. Whoever would devise a fair equivalent for this tax upon that industry, which feeds mankind, and for which substitutions have been timely and wisely adopted in other countries, would merit an honour similar to that paid by the roman people in the public theatre; to the poet, the restorer of industry and agriculture.’

In essay iv, the construction of carriages, so as to enable cattle to draw obliquely, is warmly recommended. The adoption of a principle, which the French have applied not only to their artillery, but also to civil life, would save, we are told, a fourth part of the draught horses now used in this country. It is on this occasion very truly observed, ‘that subjects like these are surely far better deserving of ministerial consideration, than forms of gallic government, or the manufacturing a French king by British subsidies.’

We are happy to see a nobleman applying his time and talents to studies like the present, and rejoice, that Lord M., justly proud of his independence, amidst a corrupt and degenerate age, can exclaim with the Roman poet:

Beatus ille qui procul negotiis,
Ut prisca gens mortalium,
Paterna rura bobus exercet suis,
Solutus omni fœnore.

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LITERARY

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THEOLOGY.

Art. I. Leipsic. *Einleitung in die Apokryphi,chen Schriften des Alten Testaments, &c.* An Introduction to the Apocryphal Books of the Old Testament, by J. G. Eichhorn, &c. 8vo. 560 p. 1795.

Eichhorn's Introduction to the Old Testament [published before the commencement of our review] is sufficiently known to the learned, and this continuation of it will no doubt be received with as much pleasure, as it has been expected with eagerness.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MEDICINE.

Art. II. Vienna. *J. A. Scherer der A. D., über das Einathmen der Lebensluft, &c.* On the Inspiration of Oxygen Air in chronic Inflammation of the Lungs, by J. A. Scherer, M. D. 8vo. 77 p. 1794.

This is a judicious exposition of the injury like to ensue from the use of oxygen air in inflammation of the lungs, as recommended by Mr. Ferro of Vienna. Two letters from Mr. Ingenhousz on the efficacy of the aerated alkaline water in calculous diseases are added. Dr. S. also relates an experiment made by him and prof. Mayer, to ascertain whether the blood were more phlogisticated by the use of animal food than by that of vegetable. For this purpose they first lived a week on a strict vegetable regimen, and then a week on a full animal diet: but in both cases their respiration of oxygen air affected the air in the same manner; and blood drawn at the end of each week, and left to stand a certain time in oxygen air, produced in it exactly the same change. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ANATOMY.

Art. III. Göttingen. Prof. Blumenbach has concluded his collection of skulls [see our Rev. Vol. ix, p. 349] with the third decade, containing ten plates and 16 pages, in 4to. In this decade is the skull of a young female georgian, which exhibits the most beautiful form. Its elegant proportion of parts, smoothness of surface, and easy flow of outline, with the nearly spherical figure of the cranium, are well preserved in the delineation. The last three plates of the decade contain skulls of children, which display the characteristics of the varieties to which they belong. One is that of a jewel five years of age, one of a mongol child half a year old, and one of a new-born negro infant. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

BOTANY.

Art. IV. Upsal. *Icones Plantarum Japonicarum, &c.* Delineations of Plants of Japan, collected in the Japanese Islands in 1775,

1775, and 1776, and described, by C. P. Thunberg. Folio: 10 plates. 1794.

Prof. T.'s *Flora Japonica*, published in 1784, in 8vo., with 39 plates, is sufficiently known, and he is now about to favour us with engravings of more of the plants of Japan, of which these before us form the first decade. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. V. Konigsberg. *Zum ewigen Frieden, &c.* To perpetual Peace. A philosophical Essay by Im. Kant. 8vo. 104 pages. 1795.

Necessity compels every individual, in the exercise of his understanding and will, to make use of his reason, and urges him to take a due survey of his sphere of activity, that he may properly apportion his ends to his powers. And so it is with mankind considered collectively. The human race will go on alternately deviating from nature and returning to her paths, till having once attained the knowledge of all it's own powers and implements, it will withdraw itself by a moral union from the not overhonourable tutelage of it's earthly parent. As a step to this moral union of mankind, the immortal author of the essay before us presents us with a view of the essential requisites to a perpetual peace. By way of clearing his ground, he sets aside in imagination the ineffectual inventions of political cunning, as so many obstacles to political wisdom, though the abovementioned tutor of mankind will wear out many rods, before she will be able to liberate them from the artifices of a self-destroying policy. Six preliminary articles must be established, before nations can lay aside their hitherto well-founded mistrust, and acquire so much confidence in each other, as to enter into a general confederacy. Nations have always lived with respect to each other in the lawless state of nature, which is in itself a state of warfare, and every treaty of peace between them, particularly since they have ceased to lay aside their weapons with their quarrels, has been nothing more than a temporary cessation of hostilities. The first of the preliminary articles is, 'that no treaty of peace, made with the secret reserve of matter for a future war, shall be considered as an actual treaty:' the fifth, 'that no state shall forcibly interfere with the government and constitution of another state:' the sixth, 'that no state shall commit such acts of hostility towards another in war, as would render mutual confidence in a subsequent peace impossible.' These articles are necessary according to the letter: the second, third, and fourth, depend on the circumstances of the times, and prescribe limits to treaties, armed force, and money, so far as they may be employed to violent and unjust purposes against other states. Mr. K. is far from expecting the approach of perpetual peace from a sudden change in the opinions of mankind, and a decisive propensity to good: but he is persuaded, that it will necessarily arrive; and that men need only see their own interest more clearly, to unite for bringing it about; and that, though it might be rash to speak of one age as superior

to another in point of morals, yet never was there a time when more persons turned their thoughts to substantial and practical improvements, and tracing the sources of evil, than the present. We cannot take leave of this work, without quoting the following proposition, which the author lays down as an infallible criterion of unjust policy. ‘ Every action which has reference to the rights of other men, if it’s *principles* do not admit of being made public, is unjust. For a principle which I cannot publish without frustrating my own purpose, which must be kept altogether secret for it to succeed, and which I cannot openly avow, without exciting the opposition of all people to my design, necessarily presupposes injustice to be essential to it; since I could on no other ground expect general opposition.’

[Our readers will not be surprised to hear, that the emperor of Germany has prohibited the sale of this book in his dominions.]

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

COINS AND MEDALS.

ART. VI. Lemgo. *Ernst August Althof’s, &c., Beschreibung seines Münzvorraths.* E. A. Althof’s Description of his Collection of Coins. 8vo. About 360 pages. 1796.

This description is intended principally to serve the purpose of a sale catalogue of the collection of Mr. A., late preacher to the court, and pastor of the lutheran congregation at Detmold, which is to be sold by auction the beginning of September next.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

HISTORY.

ART. VII. Konigsberg. *Geschichte Preussens, &c.* The History of Prussia, by Lewis von Baczko. Vols. I—IV. 8vo. 1800 p. 1792-5.

The author of this history has spared no pains to render it an authentic record of facts; and for this purpose has critically examined some thousands of documents, published and unpublished, and even studied the languages of neighbouring nations. Thus he has been enabled to compose an original work of some merit, destitute neither of new facts, nor of new modes of seeing things already known. Having said this of the work itself, perhaps our readers may be a little surprised to learn, that the author has been blind from his infancy, is very infirm, and is without fortune.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MYTHOLOGY.

ART. VIII. Berlin. *Historisch-kritische Abhandlung über die Lamaschen Religion, &c.* An historico-critical Essay on the Religion of the Lama, by K. D. Hüllmann. 8vo. 54 p. 1795.

This is an elaborate inquiry into the origin of the religion of Tibet, of which the dalai lama is the head, and an account of it’s present state.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART.

PHILOLOGY.

ART. IX. Brunswick. *Beyträge zur Beförderung der fortschreitenden Ausbildung der Deutschen Sprache, &c.* Essays to promote the progressive Improvement of the German Language, by a Society of Philologers. 8vo. Numbers 1—III. 608 pages. 1795.

This attempt of Mr. Campe to improve our mother tongue, by the combined endeavours of a society of men of letters, certainly deserves commendation. The coadjutors of Mr. C. in these three numbers we find to have been Eschenburg, Ruediger, Heynatz, Fischer of Halberstadt, Cladius, Mackensen, prof. Lowe of Breslaw, prof. Wagner of Brunswick, Ign. Mertian of Augsburg, Gedike, major von Winterfeld, and the late Ebert. The other members of the society are Bartels, Kinderling, Reß, Teller, Trapp, Afsprung, Meyer of Kiel, Petersen of Darmstadt, Schulze of Blankenburg, and baron von Senkenberg. One great object of the authors appears to be, to stem the torrent of foreign words lately poured in upon us, to the destruction of many native ones, often equal or superior to them in force of expression, and always more congruous to our language.

[This complaint is not more applicable to the german language we apprehend, than to our own; and in both the evil originates in great measure probably from the same cause, the practice of translation. It is not every translator, that has sufficient command of his own language to find apt words in it to express the meaning of his author. Unfortunately on too many occasions celerity is the first object with the translator; and the hackneyed excuse of ignorance and idleness, that a word is untranslatable, is so ready to his hand, that he scruples not to avail himself of it, rather than spend time in research and recollection, and either gives us the french word as it stands, or transforms it into a half french half english hybrid. So much is this the practice, that an englishman had need have at least a smattering of french before he takes up a translation from a french author, generally speaking; and indeed if he have not something more than a smattering, what with french words, french phraseology, and english words used in french significations, he will often be at a loss, even if he be not misled. And the mischief of it is, this practice is so easy, and saves so much time and labour, that, however disgraceful in reality, it is eagerly adopted by so many, as to obtain all the sanction that number without weight can give. Them, who are unable to do better, we must leave to themselves; but let us intreat such as give way to it from mere idleness, while they want not the ability to do otherwise, to beware how they afford the herd an opportunity of pleading their practice, and taking shelter under their authority.] *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*